

**Sense of place, protected areas and tourism:
Two Tasmanian case studies**

Chia-Chin Lin

BS (Horticulture); MS (Horticulture), National Chung-Hsing University;
Master of Environmental Planning, University of Tasmania

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University of Tasmania

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Declaration of Originality

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Abstract

The focus of the research was to explore the meaning of ‘sense of place’ and develop a better understanding of the concept in the context of protected areas. The nature and magnitude of changes in sense of place arising from tourism developments were also investigated. In this context, I sought to elucidate the usefulness of sense of place in two endeavours: (a) guiding the governance and management of protected areas, and (b) making empirical contributions to the resolution of issues associated with recreation and tourism.

Through an analysis of the literature, I identified limitations in previous research concerning sense of place for natural areas, and developed a conceptual model that explained the factors associated with formation of people’s senses of place, and the relationships between sense of place, tourism impacts and tourism developments. This model was used to illustrate how the consideration of sense of place can contribute to protected area governance and management, particularly in relation to recreation and tourism.

I examined the validity of the model, and explored the meaning and utility of sense of place in the context of protected areas and tourism, by collecting data on each of the component concepts and variables. This empirical work involved the deployment of both qualitative and quantitative methods in case studies involving two Tasmanian natural areas: Tasman National Park and Recherche Bay. In-person interviews as well as questionnaire surveys were conducted with stakeholders to examine people-place relationships, perceptions of existing and potential tourism impacts, and attitudes to current and proposed tourism developments.

The results demonstrate that sense of place is an overarching idea that encompasses a variety of dimensions, including place attachment. People’s senses of place for my study sites can also be classified into non-exclusive and exclusive forms. Non-exclusive senses of place, which are not restricted to my study sites, but can be evoked wherever similar place features and qualities exist, include place atmosphere, functional attachment and intellectual attachment. Exclusive senses of place are constituted by feelings of belongingness or identification that are restricted to associations with particular sites. They are emotion-driven and are aroused by past experiences people have had in a particular place. My analysis also determined factors that can influence

the intensity of attachments to the study sites. These factors include ownership of property at that place, the place where respondents had resided the longest, frequency of visitation to the study sites, frequency of visitation in the past year, types of recreational activities, purpose of visitation, and time of visitation.

These findings were used to develop guidance on contemporary protected area governance practices in terms of using sense of place as an additional dimension when including stakeholders in decision-making procedures. Understandings concerning the meanings people bestow on the environment helped identify place characteristics that are fundamental to developing appropriate management objectives and strategies. I also show how protected area authorities can incorporate understandings of sense of place into recommendations for sustainable tourism planning and management. An understanding of how users perceive, choose and interact with various settings provides a basis for managers to identify the services, facilities and range of recreation opportunities that they are to maintain. The extent to which findings from the two Tasmanian case examples might apply to other protected areas, particularly in regions experiencing rapid expansion of tourism developments, is also considered. I conclude with suggestions for further research.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

My thesis aims to contribute to the resolution of some of the land and resources disputes that affect Tasmania, in particular those in the last half century that have arisen in association with the introduction of tourism infrastructure on lands designated as protected areas. These are the very areas where environmental group members have often fought long and hard to win for conservation, but are often compromised by development. These lands they have argued should be kept in as natural a state as possible in contrast to increasingly developed landscapes.

My thesis investigates the nature and severity of such impacts and uses case studies of comparatively recent proposals for tourism developments within national parks. The concept of sense of place is explored as a tool for investigating these impacts. I argue that information indicating the meanings that people bestow on the environment helps to identify place characteristics that can be fundamental to developing appropriate management objectives and strategies. An understanding of how users perceive, choose, and interact with various settings can provide inputs for managers to choose services and facilities and the range of recreation opportunities that they will maintain.

1.1 Rationale of the thesis

Protected areas are often places where nature or the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of outstanding characteristics with aesthetic, ecological, and/or cultural significance (IUCN WCPA 2011). These regions are important for the services they provide to humans, including conservation of cultural heritage, ecosystem health, and economic development as well as mental and physical benefits (Dudley 2008; Lockwood 2006; Parks Forum 2008). The sites reserved for natural or historic reasons may also be attractive for outdoor activities and popular destinations for tourism and recreation.

Protected areas are distinguishable from other types of land/sea use because the primary goals of governance and management are to protect biological diversity, other natural values, and associated cultural heritage (Worboys et al. 2005). The traditional mode of protected area governance, however, has been 'top-down' and has had difficulty in addressing problems that are not amenable to central government solutions (Koontz & Thomas 2006; McGuire 2006). Traditional governance often fails to fully address the

human dimension of environmental values because of inadequate understandings of human association with environments and landscapes, especially the cultural and social awareness of local and Indigenous communities (Lockwood 2010; Phillips 2003). Over the last few decades, there have been trends in protected area governance away from governmental domination to a more collaborative approach in which powers are diffused among a diversity of actors (Lockwood 2010). This movement means that governance and management need to address a broader range of meanings than is common in much contemporary practice. The fact that most terrestrial and ocean landscapes have been shaped in part through the interaction of humans and non-human processes also indicates this necessity. Considering the natural environment independent of human constructions can lead to limited understanding of place values. Protected area management is best informed, among many other factors, by the relationships between communities and these areas.

‘Sense of place’ provides a suitable basis for describing, analysing, and taking into account such relationships. Sense of place is an umbrella concept that articulates a range of dimensions of how people construct relations with their surroundings. The usefulness of this idea is based in the fact that people confer particular meanings on the environment in ways that reflect their social and cultural experiences and interactions (Eisenhauer et al. 2000). The nature of places can thus be better understood within the context of particular human-environment relationships (Kaltenborn 1998).

Understanding place meanings bestowed by people can improve the ability of managers to address deeper and place-specific symbolic values (Williams & Vaske 2003). This is a step toward more integrated governance and management.

By assessing sense of place, valuable place features can be identified, and can serve as basic information for developing objectives fundamental to management decisions. Accordingly, land managers can focus on maintaining and enhancing these features, thus aiding a better quality of visitor facilities and services, whilst the place image can be nurtured and preserved. The uniqueness of the place defines an environment where an appropriate range of recreation opportunities can be provided. Such a setting can support iconic visitor experiences. In addition, the place meanings identified for individual protected areas can be used as baseline information for developing a spatial framework to monitor landscape change.

Recreation and tourism are major uses in many protected areas, together with worldwide growth in protected area visitation. These activities are widely promoted as a source of local and regional economic activity, as well as to offset the withdrawal of natural resource availability that arises from protected area designations. However, recreation and tourism uses in protected areas have given rise to environmental and social impacts, such as litter, human waste and vandalism, as well as degraded natural environments (Hillery et al. 2001). These economic activities and biophysical and social impacts have raised concerns for resource depletion as well as diminished quality of the visitor experience (Moore & Polley 2007; Newsome et al. 2002). Management of natural resources can also involve some level of conflict among different groups of stakeholders who are attached to the same resources. At the heart of such conflicts is competition over the allocation and distribution of scarce resources as a result of different meanings assigned to the same resource (Williams & Vaske 2003). Developing ways of measuring sense of place in terms of how people value the place and what the place means to them may assist in exposing an important underlying source of resource-based conflicts. Examining the commonalities and divergences that exist within opposing stakeholder groups can also sensitise managers to such conflicts and may offer paths to resolution.

Sense of place is widely recognised and established in scholarly literature, which mostly gives emphasis to built settings and the values of particular sample groups such as students or residents. However, there are a number of limitations and gaps in our current understanding of sense of place. Few studies have explored people-place relations in natural settings and made comparisons across groups. There are also issues in defining and effectively measuring sense of place which limit application to management. Little attention has been given to the potential of using sense of place as a means of informing more collaborative approaches to protected area management. Lack of awareness of the idea and the difficulties of application also restricts its application. There is little guidance on how protected area authorities can integrate an understanding of sense of place and the associated impacts of recreation and tourism into their governance and management systems and practices. My research will address these issues.

1.2 Contribution and purpose of the thesis

In response to the limited application of sense of place theory and practice to protected area governance and management, I have defined two major thesis aims. Firstly, given the inadequate attention to the concept both theoretically and practically, my thesis aims to fill the gap in knowledge by examining whether existing tourism developments and impacts and proposed tourism developments can influence sense of place with respect to protected areas. This is to be achieved using two Tasmanian case-study applications: Recherche Bay and Tasman National Park (see Chapter 5).

The second purpose is to elucidate the usefulness of sense of place in guiding the governance and management of protected areas, and to make empirical contributions to the resolution of issues of recreation and tourism. A theoretical framework is devised to examine the complex relationships between sense of place, tourism impacts, and tourism developments. How consideration of the concept can contribute to protected area governance and management, particularly in relation to recreation and tourism, is illustrated in this model, which is tested by application to the two case studies. This examination contributes to better and more tangible understandings of sense of place, and ultimately informs decision-making. It supports suggestions on how protected area authorities can incorporate understandings of the concept into their governance and management systems and practices.

The following objectives of my thesis are developed in accordance with these two purposes.

Sense of place and protected areas

- 1-1. To evaluate sense of place respondents have for my case study areas.
- 1-2. To understand respondents' perceptions of the characteristics that contribute to their sense of place.
- 1-3. To identify whether respondents with differing background characteristics, and who participate in different recreational pursuits, articulate different senses of place.

Tourism and protected areas

- 2-1. To examine respondents' attitudes to tourism developments.
- 2-2. To assess respondents' perceptions of tourism impacts.

- 2-3. To identify whether respondents with differing background characteristics, and who participate in different recreational pursuits, vary in their attitudes and perceptions.

Sense of place and tourism

- 3-1. To evaluate if respondents with different senses of place vary in their attitudes to tourism developments and perceptions of tourism impacts.

Protected area governance and management

- 4-1. To investigate respondents' future intentions with respect to protected area usage and the associated determining factors.
- 4-2. To analyse the differences and similarities between the two case studies and interpret their significance for governance and management.
- 4-3. To illustrate how protected area authorities can integrate understanding of sense of place within governance, management systems, and practices.
- 4-4. To show how protected area authorities can take account of sense of place in their recreation and tourism planning and management.

Theory development

- 5-1. To develop and test a theoretical model of the relationships among respondents' senses of place, tourism developments, tourism impacts, and protected area management.

1.3 Methods

To achieve the above objectives various methods were employed. These are briefly discussed in this section and described in detail in Chapter 4. The information presented here indicates the context of my research and provides the foundation for my overall research design. The theoretical basis of my thesis is introduced here, revealing the way my thinking developed and how my thesis was conducted. The reasons for selecting individual methods are also explained.

The overall thesis methodology broadly followed an adaptive theory approach. Adaptive theory is both inductive and deductive. Such theory “both shapes and is shaped by the empirical data that emerges from research” and “allows the dual influence of extant theory (theoretical models) as well as those that unfold from the research” (Layder 1998, p.133). According to adaptive theory, theorising is seen as a continuous

process that “endeavours to combine the use of pre-existing theory and theory generated from data analysis in the formulation and actual conduct of empirical research”, where theorising is seen as a continuous process throughout a project (Layder 1998, p.1). With a focus on an inductive process to expand or rethink theoretical concepts, the investigator is allowed more freedom and flexibility to interpret and adjust these concepts, thus facilitating their integration into all aspects of the research (Dickson-Swift 2006). By comparing existing ideas with practical studies, this approach is well suited to linking theory with practice. It is the approach I have adopted.

My approach of inquiry is a mixed methods approach, which is one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (e.g., consequence-oriented, problem-centred and pluralistic) (Creswell 2003). Researchers have recognised that all methods have limitations and felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods (Creswell 2003). A mixed methods approach generally employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting both quantitative and qualitative data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems and triangulate data sources (Creswell 2003). For my data collection and analyses, the mixed methods approach was employed and incorporated into my analytical explanations and arguments. This approach presents both individual and general perspectives on the issues of concern. Qualitative interviews with key informants provided depth and detail, while quantitative surveys indicated global patterns that may be generalisable across cases with similar contexts. The strategy of inquiry was to begin with qualitative interviews for exploratory purposes and to follow up with quantitative surveys with a large sample to generalise results to a population. Moreover, some of the qualitative interviews and quantitative surveys were also conducted simultaneously. This approach will be further elaborated in Section 4.1.

A case study approach was also employed in order to provide an in-depth account of the issues of interest at a local level. Generalised information applicable to other cases such as other protected areas with similar contexts and issues was generated. The utility of the case study approach stems from qualities unique to every situation, which can also reveal commonalities between cases (Denscombe 1998). Accessibility dictated that the case study sites should be within Tasmania. Two protected areas were chosen because of their ability to fulfil my concerns and interests.

1.4 Thesis overview

Chapter 2 examines the literature on governance and management of protected areas. The values of these places and the goals and objectives for their protection are outlined. The significance of governance and the challenges involved are explored, as is the contemporary paradigm of governance and management. Concerns for tourism and recreation usage are illustrated and relevant tools and approaches for tourism planning and management presented. The critical role of public engagement in the contemporary paradigm is highlighted as a key motivation for evaluating sense of place in relation to frameworks and decisions for governance and management.

Chapter 3 provides an understanding of sense of place and other closely related concepts. Development of research into people-place relationship is presented. Definitions of sense of place and related terminologies are identified. How these terminologies relate to each other is also clarified. In addition, disagreements over those definitions and their relationships are illustrated. This chapter then demonstrates the importance of sense of place within natural and recreational settings. Applications of integrating the idea into protected area management are shown with examples. The scarcity of research that applies sense of place to protected areas is also identified. The main terminologies and definitions I adopt are then elaborated.

Based on previous chapters, Chapter 4 explains my methods. The first section explains further my rationale for adopting a mixed-method approach, particularly my use of qualitative interviews and quantitative surveys. The second part develops and explains a conceptual model to address the relationships between sense of place, tourism development, tourism impacts, and protected area management. Thirdly, the development, implementation, and analytical methods for in-person interviews and survey questionnaires are described. A stakeholder analysis is also highlighted in this chapter as an essential tool to identify and assess the importance of key individuals, groups of people, or institutions that may significantly influence the issues of concern.

Chapter 5 explains two case study sites in which the research methods are deployed and tested. The reasons for choosing these places and their significance are discussed. An overview of the proposed tourism developments within the study settings and issues associated with the proposals are elucidated.

Chapters 6 and 7 present the results from the qualitative interviews and quantitative surveys. The implications of these results are discussed in Chapter 8, and conclusions are drawn in Chapter 9. Deployment of my mixed-method approach generated a rich and extensive array of data, not all of which could be presented in this thesis. Even so, Chapters 6 and 7 are both long and detailed. The reader may find it helpful, after reading up to Chapter 5, to briefly gain an overview of Chapter 8 before becoming immersed in the detailed results. Doing so may assist an appreciation of the relevance and significance of the material in Chapters 6 and 7.

Chapter 2 Governance and management of protected areas

Given my focus on the application of sense of place to governance and management of protected areas, the purpose of this chapter is to summarise current knowledge relevant to the thesis in these two fields. The chapter first discusses the characteristics and significance of protected areas, and outlines the values of protected areas and objectives of management. The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) classification system is presented as an international framework for protected area management. Governance of protected areas is reviewed in terms of its significance and the various types of governance mode. The trends towards openness, quality and diversification are examined, followed by an introduction to the contemporary paradigm of protected area governance. The need for a decentralised and participatory approach in response to the challenges facing protected area governors is analysed. Developments in tourism and recreation in protected areas are then examined, with a focus on Tasmania as the study context. Concerns associated with tourism developments are illustrated with examples. Relevant approaches for tourism planning and management are presented. The critical role for public engagement in decision-making is highlighted as a key motivation for considering sense of place in protected area governance and management frameworks and decisions.

2.1 Characteristics and significance of protected areas

This section provides a summary of protected area features and values and introduces the IUCN classification of protected areas.

2.1.1 Values

Protected areas are distinguishable from other types of land or sea use because their management goals are to protect biological diversity and natural and associated cultural resources (Worboys et al. 2005). Based on the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA), which is a joint project of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the IUCN, there were over 120,000 terrestrial protected areas by 2008 covering 12.2% of the Earth's land area (WDPA 2011). Different frameworks have been adopted for describing the significance of these protected areas. For example, an

IUCN report, *Protected areas in 2023: scenario for an uncertain future*, indicates these places have been valued for their ecological significance, cultural and spiritual meanings, and the services that they provide to humans (McNeely 2005b). The following brief outline of protected area values is based on this framework.

Protected areas are a major means of conserving biodiversity (Pickering & Hill 2007). They are places retained for in-situ conservation because of the demands for land and natural resources as a result of population growth and development, leading to loss of natural habitats. Areas protected for conservation are often refuges for threatened or endemic species (Dudley 2008; Kelleher 1999). Australia, for example, recorded 340 threatened fauna and 1250 flora species in 2008 (IUCN 2008) and relies, in many cases, on the protection of regions set aside for conservation (Parks Forum 2008). Many significant geological and geographical landscapes and seascapes are also conserved that demonstrate major features of earth history and earth processes (Dudley 2008). Moreover, protected areas can also help to tackle climate change. They can reserve large regions of native vegetation, particularly forests, which remove and store carbon dioxide from the atmosphere (Parks Forum 2008). An analysis of the Australian National Reserve System concluded that national parks and other protected areas presented the best option for retaining natural ecosystem resilience, reducing threats, and protecting refuges and other critical habitats that will be needed by Australia's native animals and plants to adapt to climate change (Sattler & Taylor 2008).

Protected areas also have social, cultural, and religious values, particularly in Indigenous societies. Indigenous and European settlement sites, sacred places, wrecks, and lighthouse reflect and safeguard natural and cultural heritage and vulnerable human societies (Kelleher 1999). Many places associated with Indigenous communities were protected because they were valued as homes of gods, resting places for the dead, or religious, spiritual, and sacred sites, such as Uluru (previously known as Ayers Rock) in the Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park in the centre of Australia (Mulongoy & Chape 2004; McNeely 2005a). Protected areas such as wilderness also have social values. Cordell and Stokes (2000) identified spiritual inspiration as one important social value of the American wilderness. The wilderness category of protected area has been the subject of much debate over definitions seen variously as negative, exclusively anthropocentric, and contradictory. For example, Griffiths (1991) in Australia

commented on Lesslie and Taylor's (1983) vision that wilderness needed to be "land ... remote ... and undisturbed ... by settled people", and Lennon's (1989) finding that the Wilsons Promontory wilderness in that country had been a humanised landscape inhabited by sealers, loggers, and the army. More recently, the emphasis has shifted to ecological significance although, again in Australia, "biophysical naturalness" was used as a wilderness indicator over 20 years ago by Lesslie et al. (1988, pp.3-4).

Another value of protected areas is a wide range of ecosystem services. These include clean water and air for human consumption; providing outside laboratories and museums for science and learning; and protecting important native habitats for birds, bees, and butterflies which provide significant economic benefits to farmers (Dudley 2008; Parks Forum 2008). Protected areas are also potential tools for economic development by underpinning tourism and recreational industries (McNeely 2005b). Terrestrial and marine parks across Australia attracted around 80 million visits annually, and over 40% of all international visits took in a national park (Griffin & Vacaflores 2004). In 2001/02, there were an estimated 1.3 million visits to Tasmanian national parks, generating an estimated \$2.1 million in direct revenue for protected area management agencies (Steffen 2004). Other benefits include generating funds that help meet the costs of conservation, maintaining cultural traditions, and providing education and enhancing quality of life in a host community by developing facilities and services (Eagles et al. 2002). Visiting protected areas can also enhance physical and mental health. For instance, natural environments offer low-cost preventative and remedial opportunities for public health (Maller et al. 2008). Protected areas can contribute to a diversity of environments that provide a contrast to the urban environment. Such diversity can stimulate human emotions and senses, seen as fundamental to human needs (Schwartz 2007). A report by the Tasmanian Parks and Wildlife Service (TPWS) pointed out mental health associated with protected areas can also extend to people who have never visited (TPWS 2002a). However, tourism and recreation have also brought negative impacts to protected areas, and their connection with economic development is under scrutiny, as discussed in Section 2.3.

2.1.2 IUCN categories and related framework issues

The IUCN has an international system of classifying protected areas that is used to assist planners and managers. By providing a consistent system and guidelines, the

IUCN categories aim to encourage national protected area systems, reduce confusion about terminology, and also identify resources and characteristics of individual protected areas (Bishop et al. 2004; Dudley 2008). The system can provide information that is comparable across countries and regions (CBD 2004) and enhance communication and exchange of information between different countries by serving as international standards for communication, and to create a framework for handling data (Bishop et al. 2004; IUCN & WCMC 1994). The system also serves as a guideline for appropriate management objectives (IUCN & WCMC 1994). This global standard acknowledges that the establishment, planning, and management of protected areas cannot be accomplished without international agreements and cooperation, especially in developing countries (Bishop et al. 2004).

Protected areas had been developed unilaterally and nationally, and each nation established its own management approach and legislation, as well as in response to other initiatives and regional agreements (Dudley 2008). The first effort to classify reserves was made in 1933 at the International Conference for the Protection of Fauna and Flora in London which set out four protected area categories: national park; strict nature reserve; fauna and flora reserve; and reserve with prohibition for hunting and collecting (Holdgate 1999). Various subsequent attempts were made. It was not until 1994 that the current system of six IUCN categories was proposed (IUCN & WCMC 1994):

- I. Ia) Strict nature reserve and Ib) Wilderness area: science or wilderness protection
- II. National park: ecosystem protection and recreation
- III. Natural monument: conservation of specific natural features
- IV. Habitat/species management area: conservation through management intervention
- V. Protected landscape/seascape: landscape/seascape conservation and recreation
- VI. Managed resource protected area: sustainable use of natural ecosystems

With the accompanying guidelines that offered to help in application of the categories, the system is now widely adopted and used in national and international legislation and policy. More than 67% of the nearly 105,000 sites in the World Database on Protected Areas have been assigned IUCN management categories (Chape 2004). Research into over 320 pieces of legislation for protected areas conducted by the IUCN Environmental Law Centre shows that 124 have been adopted since the 1994 guidelines were published; over 10% of these were strongly influenced by IUCN guidance (Dillon 2004).

Since its inauguration, the IUCN categories system has been proposed for over fifteen years and has undergone considerable evolution in ideas and practice. Suggestions have also been made in response to the system. For instance, Locke and Dearden (2005) advocated for a reclassification of cultural modified landscapes (V) and managed resource areas (VI) as sustainable development areas. They argued for the protection of wild biodiversity as the major objective of protected areas, which should not be overridden by human activities in humanised protected areas in categories V and VI. Bishop et al. (2004) reviewed the impact and effectiveness of the 1994 IUCN categories, suggesting new guidelines in order to clarify what they saw as continuing confusion about some uses of the original guidelines. Awareness-raising and capacity building of the system was proposed for dealing with the lack of detailed and consistent understanding and limited technical, institutional, and financial capacity to implement it. Another suggestion by Bishop et al. (2004) was to develop a monitoring and research programme around the use of the categories. In response, Dudley (2008) presented new guidelines, together with a new definition of a protected area as “a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values” (p.8). The new guidelines include planning for climate change; using the IUCN categories as a tool for conservation planning and conservation policies; and specialised applications for various types of protected areas such as forest, marine, inland water, sacred natural sites, and geo-diversity. How international conservation initiatives such as the World Heritage Convention, Ramsar Convention, and Convention on Biological Diversity relate to the IUCN categories is also addressed.

2.2 Governance of protected areas

This section begins by clarifying the meaning and significance of governance, followed by the role of governance in protected areas and how the governance function can be operationalised. Types of governance associated with protected areas are examined. Trends in protected area governance are presented to provide the context for models of a contemporary governance regime that are characterised by increasing concern with fairness, openness, engagement, and diversity. Decentralised and participatory approaches are outlined as prominent responses to the calls for fair and engaged regimes. Principles of good governance are introduced.

2.2.1 Significance of governance

The term ‘governance’ describes the structures and processes used by a variety of social actors to influence and make decisions on matters of public concern (Abrams et al. 2003). Governance has been defined as “the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say” (Graham et al. 2003, p.2-3). Governance therefore embraces the powers, authorities, and responsibilities exercised by organisations and individuals (Lockwood 2010).

Governance is essential to protected areas because it is the foundation of legitimate and acceptable control of such areas. Governance exerts a major influence on policies, management plans, and achievement of management objectives. It is central to preventing or solving social conflicts and the generation and maintenance of community, political, and financial support (Borrini-Feyerabend 2004; Gurung 2010). How well a governance regime is functioning can influence management effectiveness which provides a measure of the actual achievement of the conservation goals (Dudley 2008). For example, an analysis of the European Union’s Habitats Directive revealed that the design of governance institutions influenced the degree of implementation (Paavola 2004). Managers have also found that problems at the operational level are closely linked with broader governance issues and require corrective actions by governing bodies, such as a critical examination of existing laws, policies, programmes, regulations, organisational cultures, and professional attitudes (Abrams et al. 2003).

2.2.2 Governance types

The IUCN definition and management categories of protected areas are neutral about types of ownership or management authority (Dudley 2008). However, a range of different types of governance have emerged and been proposed. This illustrates diversity in protected area governance. For instance, four governance types applicable to all IUCN categories were recognised at the Fifth World Parks Congress (IUCN 2003, p. 178): (1) government managed; (2) co-managed (i.e. multi-stakeholder management); (3) privately managed; and (4) community managed (community conserved areas). To distinguish where decision-making authority, responsibility, and accountability ultimately lie, the four governance types were divided into a range of governance

regimes (Figure 2.1) (Borrini-Feyerabend 2002). Graham et al. (2003, p.16) endorsed this classification, but added a third subdivision of the government management class. This addition covers the situation where management is delegated by government to another body. More recently, More (2005, p.15-17) proposed five management models for parks and protected areas, including: (1) fully public model (a government agency operates all services); (2) public utility model (a government agency operates as a private corporation); (3) outsourcing (contracting out services to private companies); (4) private, non-profit ownership (ownership and operation by a nongovernment organisation) and (5) private, for-profit ownership (ownership and operation by a private company). For the provision of recreation and tourism services, Glover and Burton (1998, p. 143) proposed a typology of institutional arrangements: (1) governmental arrangements (a public agency alone provides a public service); (2) cross-sector alliances (contractual relationships between a public agency and a profit-making or not-for-profit organisation, e.g., partnerships and contracts); (3) regulated monopolies (a nonpublic organisation is granted a monopoly to directly provide public services, e.g., franchise) and (4) divestiture (public services, lands or facilities are sold or leased to profit-making or not-for-profit agencies). Eagles (2008) argued that the aforementioned classifications were useful, but did not fully explore all the implications of the many combinations of land ownership, management, and income source. Eagles thus proposed seven most common combinations of models: Golden Era National Park model; Parastatal model; non-profit organisation model; ecolodge model; public and for-profit, private combination model; public and non-profit, private combination model, and Aboriginal ownership and government management model.

Government Management		Multi-stakeholder Management		Private Management			Community Management	
Central or provincial ministry or agency	Local/municipal ministry or agency	Joint Management	Collaborative Management	Individual/corporate landowners	NGO/Foundations	Research inst., university, etc.	Indigenous peoples	Local communities

Figure 2.1 – Governance types for protected areas (Borrini-Feyerabend 2002, p.14)

2.2.3 A new paradigm

The various types of governance reveal the complexity of institutional arrangements and indicate a shift in protected area governance. A new paradigm characterised by diversity and quality has emerged. Over the last two or three decades, protected area governance has moved away from a predominantly government responsibility towards a multi-level system where legitimacy of a diversity of government, private, and community-based actors are recognised (Lockwood 2010). The first key factor in this shift is the expansion of protected areas since the 1982 World Parks Congress, now inclusive of inhabited and utilised landscapes. Many small reserves were established in the vicinity of or overlapping with settlements (Naughton-Treves et al. 2005). Another factor is the recognition of multiple functions such as recreational use in areas of IUCN categories II and V as well as the sustainable use of natural ecosystems in category VI protected areas, leading to the need to engage with various actors in decision-making. The seemingly intractable environmental problems that have resulted from the independent actions of many decision-makers also involve multiple actors (Koontz & Thomas 2006; McGuire 2006). Moreover, the development of trans-boundary protected areas across local, regional, or even national boundaries contributes to the shift in protected area governance. Examples of the trans-boundary protected areas include the Yellowstone to Yukon Conservation Initiative (Y2Y) in the United States and Canada that connects the mountainous region from Yellowstone National Park to the Yukon Territory (Y2Y 2010), and the MesoAmerican Biological Corridor which links a set of reserves and sustainable use areas stretching over seven countries (Stolton 2004). One of the key challenges is to design a network across boundaries and to integrate alternative forms of protection in order to collaborate on bioregional conservation practice (Mulongoy & Chape 2004). Because of the various actors involved, some form of multi-stakeholder management is particularly suited to the trans-boundary protected areas (Sandwith et al. 2001).

The different governance types discussed in Section 2.2.2 provide examples of the diversity that can also lead to good governance quality. The new paradigm of governance which provides a fair, open, and engaging process is necessary for managing and responding to multiple purposes, various land ownerships, and various actors. The following elaborates.

Decentralisation

The centre of the new paradigm is a shift from government to governance, implying a restructured power from monopoly to pluralism, and towards decentralisation.

Decentralised governance means the power and responsibility for management are distributed amongst a range of stakeholders, as in Section 2.2.2. Multilevel governance (Brondizio et al. 2009) or polycentric governance (Ostrom 2005) also involves distinct but interlinked components at two or more levels of social organisation and typically embeds some form of decentralisation. Another example is the multiple ownership of a given protected area that may involve several geographical levels of governance, such as the global, national, regional, or local level (Graham et al. 2003). For example, some areas will inevitably need to be under a shared governance type. This includes cross-sector alliance (Glover & Burton 1998), multi-stakeholder management (Graham et al. 2003), or protected areas in international waters and the Antarctic where there is no single state authority. In large and complex protected areas, particularly in categories V and VI, multiple governance types can be involved, possibly under the umbrella of an overview authority (Dudley 2008).

Decentralisation can take several forms in management. There is an emerging global trend that governments have entrusted the management of protected areas to the private sector and non-government organisations through devolution of authority (Secaira et al. 2005). For instance, place-based management is a form of decentralisation that integrates many functionally distinct activities within a spatially delimited area, while co-management is a method for supplying governance that features cooperative decision-making among users and public authorities (Brondizio et al. 2009). Another example of decentralisation is the private ownership of reserves. In Australia, there are private reserves managed by conservation organisations, community groups, private landholders and indigenous landholders (Environment Australia 2011). In Tasmania, there are private lands declared as Private Nature Reserves, Private Sanctuaries and Areas Covenanted for Conservation in Perpetuity. These areas are owned by individuals, non-government organisations such as Tasmanian Land Conservancy and Tasmanian Farmers and Graziers Association (TPWS 2011). No single approach is ideal and applicable to every situation; utility and success is dependent on local circumstances (Barber et al. 2004).

Decentralisation does not remove the need for central authority. Centralisation has advantages of being essential for dealing with problems that span the jurisdictional boundaries of lower level governments, having resources and expertise not available to lower level governments, and (ideally) more strategic in their allocation of policy effort (Reeve et al. 2002). Decentralisation is a new form of governance that provides more choices and a different mechanism of engaging and even empowering multi-levelled stakeholders in response to particular circumstances. It offers opportunities to develop innovative local systems which empower and engage a wider range of actors and deliver more effective, equitable, and just outcomes than central governments (Barber et al. 2004).

Several studies have shown the benefits of decentralisation to protected areas in terms of issues at a regional level involving multi-stakeholders. For example, research into the challenges confronting environmental governance of the Xingu Indigenous Park in Brazil revealed that a single system at the park level was not broad enough to affect the surrounding agro-industrial region (Brondizio et al. 2009). The same study pointed to the need to recognise the role of institutions in facilitating cross-level environmental governance as an important form of social capital that is essential for the long-term protection of ecosystems and the well-being of different populations. The benefits are echoed by research conducted in Guatemala, where a governing council as the umbrella agency of Guatemala's protected areas is composed of seven members from various government agencies and NGOs (Secaira et al. 2005). Eagles (2009) employed ten criteria for good governance to assess eight management models in different countries that underpin recreation and tourism partnerships in parks and protected areas. The result showed that the public and non-profit combination model received the highest rank than the traditional national park model in terms of good governance. In an evaluation of governance processes for the Galapagos Marine Reserve (Heylings & Bravo 2007), the co-management regime had exemplified strong performance in terms of strategic vision, participation, empowerment, consensus orientation and resilience, and yet less well in terms of responsible representation, equity, and credibility.

Although decentralisation has proved to be a promising means of designing institutions, implementation is not without risks. Decentralisation can result in fragmented, unrepresentative, and undemocratic institutions and processes when responsibilities

are transferred without links to agencies that possess enforcement authority and may result in unaccountable local authorities (Lockwood 2010). An analysis of a nine-levelled governance of the Morvan Regional Park in France showed that the Park has been fragmented into many overlapping layers (Parra 2010). Decentralisation can be counterproductive for protected areas if local authorities are not committed to conservation, or not prepared to assume their new responsibilities (Barber et al. 2004). To achieve effective outcomes, both power transfers and representation with accountability are also indispensable (Ribot 2002). However, many current decentralisation reforms are characterised by insufficient transfer of powers to local institutions, under tight central-government oversight (Ribot 2002). To avoid poor outcomes from decentralisation, it is critical to ensure that power and representation with accountability are transferred to the chosen governance body/bodies. Decisions about the type of governance and the approach are best made according to the political, economic, and physical context of individual protected areas.

Participation

Decentralised governance also indicates a shift towards participation, implying the empowerment of multiple stakeholders and decision-making with various levels of public input. The pressure for public participation in government decision-making has increased in the past few decades at many levels (Catt 1999; Beierle & Konisky 2000), including protected areas (Dearden et al. 2005). For instance, the significance of local community in long-term tourism development was identified by examining three popular mountain destinations in the Nepalese Himalayas (Nepal 2000). Many environmentalists have advocated participatory and community-based natural resource management in order to increase environmental management efficiency and improve equity and justice for local people (Ribot 2002). More participatory governance is also embraced by governments. For example, the Tasmania Parks and Wildlife Service (TPWS 2007a) has advocated and provided opportunities for engaging community in decision-making. This includes individuals, community groups and organisations, and the business and government sectors. To suit available resources and each circumstance in terms of the needs of the particular project or issue, the appropriate level and mechanism of community participation is determined by an assessment process, which is an analysis of the stake (level of interest) and influence (impact and benefit derived

from stakeholder involvement) that indicates engagement priority and engagement aims. Another example is the adaptive decision-making process implemented in the Kruger National Park in South Africa (Biggs & Rogers 2003). As one of the core elements of the management system, this process recognises that participatory learning by all stakeholders is necessary for successful management.

Participatory governance can encompass several levels and formats. Pretty (1994) proposed a typology of participation that ranges from passive to interactive. More recently, Fung (2006) proposed a ‘democracy cube’ that shows the range of institutional possibilities for public participation. The TPWS has utilised three levels of participation: collaboration, consultation, and information (TPWS 2007). Similarly, a spectrum of public participation that has added involvement and empowerment was proposed by the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2) (Figure 2.2). As one of the widely accepted examples of different levels of participation, the spectrum has a simple structure and clear linkage to application methods, and each level of public input is associated with a particular goal of public participation, promise to the public, and techniques that help to achieve goals (IAP2 2007). As the spectrum moves from informing to empowering there is an increasing level of engagement, sharing of decision-making power and sharing of responsibility. For instance, collaboration is a stronger form of public participation that involves less flexibility and more regulatory procedures. The scope of collaboration can range from one dominant partner with other partners only in occasional consultations or for benefit-sharing, to all partners being equally represented in decision-making and implementation (Kothari 2006).


<i>Increasing Level of Public Impact</i> 					
Public participation goal	Inform	Consult	Involve	Collaborate	Empower
	To provide the public with balanced and objective information to assist them in understanding the problem, alternatives, opportunities and/or solutions	To obtain public feedback on analysis, alternatives and/or decisions	To work directly with the public throughout the process to ensure that public concerns and aspirations are consistently understood and considered	To partner with the public in each aspect of the decision including the development of alternatives and the identification of the preferred solution	To place final decision-making in hands of the public
Example techniques	Fact sheets Web sites Open houses	Public comment Focus groups Surveys Public meetings	Workshops Deliberative polling	Citizen advisory committees Consensus building Participatory decision-making	Citizen juries Ballots Delegated decision

Figure 2.2 –The IAP2 Spectrum of Public Participation (IAP2 2007)

Participating in the rules and institutions that shape one's community is a basic human right and part of human development, according to UNDP (2002). It also begins consensus building by facilitating communication and understanding, which are critical to highly polarised issues. By providing a platform and a legitimate mechanism to engage or empower stakeholders across multiple levels, participatory governance can often deliver more effective management. This is because, in contrast to more centralised governance, participatory governance emphasises communication among citizens and subsequent consideration of the viewpoints of others (Mathews 1994). Cleaver (1999) and Diamond et al. (2004) argued that, as a means, participatory governance can improve the efficiency of management interventions, resulting in changes that are sustainable and approved by a larger number of people. As an end, a participatory approach is seen as necessary for equity and empowerment of suppressed groups, and for facilitating social change to the advantage of marginalised groups. Especially in developing countries, participatory governance has increasingly been promoted as providing a way to secure both biodiversity conservation and poverty reduction (UNDP 2002). For protected areas, management that incorporates participatory processes can ensure that rights and interests of relevant stakeholders are taken into account, and that costs and benefits are equitably shared (Barber et al. 2004). In Indigenous protected areas, the participation of communities to promote culturally sustainable tourism is seen as a key driver to sustain the tourism industry, while collaborative management strategies are vital to cope with the global climate change consequences (Gurung 2010). For instance, by means of collaboration, managers can make decisions that are more informed and supported by the range of affected interests, and thus are more likely to be successful and enduring (Wondolleck & Yaffee 2000). Several studies across different countries have also shown the social benefits associated with collaborative management (McLean & Stræde 2003; Reid et al. 2004; Schumann 2007; Wagner & Fernandez-Gimenez 2008). Moreover, collaboration suits the needs of trans-boundary protected areas and their expansion of into places where people live and work because it enables multiple actors to come together to achieve outcomes (Barber et al. 2004; Lockwood 2010; Sandwith et al. 2001). This kind of contribution was addressed in a symposium addressing the role of the Australian National Reserve System (Dunlop 2007).

Despite the benefits of participatory governance, a lack of legal mechanisms and government support are observed in some cases. For example, Palerm (2000) found legal provisions were one of the two components of best-practice public participation. A study of protected areas in Norway and Sweden (Hovik et al. 2010) observed that a lack of enabling rules for encouraging local participation resulted in tense conflicts between central government and the local stakeholders. An investigation of an innovation to bridge between the differing management approaches of Kuku-Yalanji Aboriginal people and the Australian Wet Tropics WHA managers revealed that the lack of substantive legal mechanisms to overcome the colonial legacy can hamper the process (Hill 2006). In addition, some scholars raised concerns for the practical implications of the participatory approach. For example, Jacobson and Decker (2008) questioned the utility of participatory democracy for highly polarised, value-laden issues. There has been much debate on the competence of citizens to participate in substantive deliberations about political issues (Soltan 1999) or the lack of citizen authority to implement policies (Mathews 1994). Other issues include the need for cost-benefit analyses to justify efforts to facilitate citizen participation and unrealistic expectations for the outcome of collaborative efforts (Kweit & Kweit 1981).

The positive outcomes associated with a participatory approach are undeniable and desirable. To avoid or mediate counterproductive effects, managers or stakeholders involved have to bear in mind that such an approach is not a panacea for every environmental issue. Careful planning and legal support is essential. To gain the support for legislation from the government, some studies have shown that changes of institutional structure are also inevitable. For example, Pero and Smith (2006) examined two rural Queensland regional bodies and observed considerable innovation in the enactment of institutional and governance structures and approaches for promoting and achieving multi-sector dialogue. The result illustrates these innovations which support the community-based natural resource governance can enhance participatory democracy. A review of the existing model of governance for state wildlife management in the United States also suggests a change of management towards a more participatory model as an alternative to a revolutionary change in governance structure (Jacobson & Decker 2008). In addition, Catt (1999) argued that participatory processes are more successful if: (1) there is a high degree of equality amongst members of the decision-

making body; (2) a consensus- based decision-making process is feasible; (3) the group of participants is fairly homogeneous and small; and (4) decision-makers support the participatory process. Social skill is another pertinent variable. An investigation of ideal participation levels in three different protected areas in Brazil showed that effective social skills were one of the factors that can assist the development of more participatory governance and enhance institutional support (Mannigel 2008). Another investigation of a committee-led community natural resource management model in managing forest resources in southern Malawi revealed a need for enhancing roles and leadership skills of traditional leaders in balancing the exercise of power among the stakeholders (Zulu 2008).

Good governance

Good governance is defined by Graham et al. (2003, p.2-3) as a mode or model that leads to social, environmental, and economic results sought by citizens. It is about respect for existing rights and the rule of law, as well as procedural elements such as informed public participation in decision-making processes, transparency in the provision of information, effective and impartial application and enforcement of rules by governing authorities, and systems by which authorities can be held accountable for their actions by the public (Barber et al. 2004). Good governance is a precautionary strategy which is able to cope with uncertainty, flexibility, and currency; and people working through good governance are able to react much better to “uncertainty, instability, chaos, long-term perspectives, broader orientations and great diversity of life-styles and meanings” (Kooiman 1993, p.48).

The ability of good governance to deal with uncertainty is essential to protected areas because the complexity of environmental problems is multidimensional and originates in social complexity (from fragmentation of stakeholders), scientific complexity (from the multiplicity of factors at work and gaps in understanding), uncertainty (from the many unknowns such as the effects of climate change), conflicting risks, and system dynamics (social, economic, political, and the state of knowledge and technologies) (Salwasser 2004). Challenges of scale and cross-scale interaction that involve multi-agencies also impose additional levels of difficulty for environmental governance (Lockwood et al. 2010). Good governance is therefore critical for effective management. It serves as a fair and effective way of exercising governing powers (means) that can

meet the objectives (ends) of protected areas; and is founded upon the capacity and reliability of governing institutions to effectively respond to problems and achieve social unity through various forms of consultation, negotiation, and multi-party agreements (Abrams et al. 2003, p.19). More specifically, good governance can assist land managers in better understanding social diversity as well as conflict. Bodies practicing good governance can handle conflict constructively by allowing for the expression of different points of view, the exploration of diverse meanings, and the development of consensus solutions, thus increasing the governing bodies' legitimacy, their respect in the eyes of the relevant stakeholders, and social compliance with the relevant rules (Abrams et al. 2003, p.19). In addition, DeLacy and Whitmore (2006) argued that the ability to provide rapid response to issues serves as one of the basic elements of effective visitor management.

Good governance is often expressed in terms of a set of principles. The tasks of defining good governance principles remain challenging and are complicated because considerations such as constitutional legitimacy, public participation and accountability may be in conflict, while excessive emphasis on some attributes over others may lead to adverse results (Shipley & Kovacs 2008). I have divided the principles of good governance for protected areas proposed in the literature into three categories (Table 2-1).

Table 2-1 – Three categories of principles of good governance for protected areas

<i>Category One</i>		<i>Category Two</i>		<i>Category Three</i>	
<i>The characteristics of good governance (UNDP 1997)</i>	<i>The five good governance principles (Graham et al. 2003)</i>	<i>IUCN principles (Dudley 2008)</i>	<i>Principles of good governance for protected areas (Borrini-Feyerabend 2004)</i>	<i>Good governance principles for terrestrial protected areas (Lockwood 2010)</i>	<i>Good governance principles in Australian multilevel context (Lockwood et al. 2010)</i>
Participation Consensus orientation	Legitimacy and Voice	Legitimacy and voice	Legitimacy and voice	Legitimacy Inclusiveness	Legitimacy Inclusiveness
Strategic vision	Direction	Direction	Direction		
Responsiveness Effectiveness and efficiency	Performance	Subsidiarity Performance	Subsidiarity Performance	Connectivity	Capability
Accountability Transparency	Accountability	Accountability Transparency	Accountability	Accountability Transparency	Accountability Transparency
Equity Rule of law	Fairness	Fairness Human rights	Fairness	Fairness	Fairness Integration
		Do no harm	Do no harm	Resilience	Adaptability

The first set of principles is based on the UNDP's list discussed at the Vth World Parks Congress. The list is described by Eagles (2009) as ten criteria for governance for

evaluating the eight management models that most commonly underpin recreation and tourism partnerships in parks and protected areas. Eagles's research revealed that the ten criteria for good governance are not treated equally in practice, and that financial efficiency may be a pivotal criterion. Using the UNDP list, the Institute on Governance has also suggested a set of five key principles of good governance (Graham et al. 2003), which has been widely adopted. For example, based on the five principles, Abrams et al. (2003) developed a participatory methodology for evaluating governance models. This was then used by Heylings and Bravo (2007) for assessing how co-management is functioning in the Galapagos Marine Reserve. Shipley and Kovacs (2008) also used the five as reference principles for comparing the content of UNESCO and ICOMOS charters and conventions for cultural heritage sites.

The second category is composed of two sets of principles (Table 2-1). The first, a broad set by IUCN, draws from field experience as well as several international agreements and instruments that have set principles and values (Dudley 2008). The other, proposed by the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, is the result of comparison with the United Nations' principles and other broadly accepted goals and rules of conduct on which they are based, suggesting their use as criteria for assessment of protected area governance applications (Borrini-Feyerabend 2004). Paramount in this category is its emphasis on human rights and equity. The former include the rights of Indigenous, mobile, and local communities, while equity can be understood as striving towards policy, practice, and institutions that respect and uphold the principles (Borrini-Feyerabend 2004).

The third category of good governance principles is derived from empirical work and some case studies (Table 2-1). Based on the criteria of structural coherence and comprehensive coverage of the governance domain, a set of seven principles is proposed by Lockwood (2010). This set of principles was developed after being tested and amended by using case studies in Scotland, Spain, France and India. Similarly, eight governance principles were developed in an Australian multilevel context by Lockwood et al. (2010) through a process involving three main components: suggestions from an expert panel; consideration of principles from the literature; and refining and testing draft sets of principles with the assistance of thirteen Australian

natural resource management governance authorities. What distinguishes this categorisation is their relative robustness, illustrated with practical examples.

Factors that influence good governance have been suggested. These are social context (Graham et al. 2003), values and cultural norms of the society, and the desired social and economic outcomes (Abrams et al. 2003). Based on these factors, the principles of good governance from category three are adopted for follow-up discussions in my thesis. The decision is made on the grounds that one example of the category three studies was undertaken in Australia, where my study sites are located. That the set of principles were derived from empirical work on case studies corresponds with the nature of my thesis. In addition, based on the criteria of 'structural coherence' and 'comprehensive coverage of the governance domain', the principles offered by Lockwood (2010) perform better in comparison with the category one principles by Graham et al. (2003) and Abrams et al. (2003). The category three principles, developed after tests using case studies in several countries, show an added robustness.

2.3 Tourism and recreation in protected areas

The purpose of this section is to provide a better understanding of the current situation of tourism and recreation within protected areas, with a focus on the jurisdiction in which my study areas are located – Tasmania. This section first clarifies the difference between the two terms: tourism and recreation. Ecotourism and nature-based tourism, as the major types of tourism developments in Tasmania, are then introduced. The tension between the need for tourism and recreation within protected areas and the environmental management objectives of such areas is outlined. Relevant concerns and issues related to ecotourism and nature-based tourism are discussed. This is followed by an account of the relevant planning and management approaches for dealing with the challenges of accommodating tourism and recreation in protected areas.

2.3.1 Tourism and recreation in protected areas

Before discussing tourism and recreation within protected areas, it is critical to clarify the differences between the two. There is a variety of definitions of the two terms; that employed by my thesis is as follows. Recreation is activity voluntarily undertaken, mainly for pleasure and satisfaction, during leisure time (Pigram & Jenkins 2006). Tourism means travel away from home for business, recreation, pleasure or other

personal purpose other than to be employed in the country or place visited, and the activities that go with this (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006; UNWTO & UNSD 2010).

Protected areas can have significant aesthetic, ecological, and cultural values and have thus become attractive settings for tourism and recreation. Their popularity has made them targets for tourism marketing. For example, wilderness and natural environments have been promoted as Tasmanian highlights by the State Government (TPWS 2001b). A study of future trends in travel and travel behaviour by Gottlieb Duttweiler Institute (2006) argues that unspoilt nature will become scarcer and consequently more precious. The commonly seen tourism operations in protected areas are usually in the form of ecotourism or nature-based tourism. Ecotourism has been widely advocated by the tourism industry since the term was introduced in the mid-1980s as a response to the demand from people influenced by environmental considerations (Weaver 2008). According to the estimation of the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), ecotourism contributes almost 20% of the global tourism market (Wight 2001). In the words of Hector Ceballos-Lascurian who coined the term in 1983 (cited in Honey 1999, p.13), ecotourism means:

Travel to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific object of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery of its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing natural aspects found in those areas.

Ecotourism encompasses broad meanings, varying from large-scale development to small scale projects, or including any kind of travel as long as something 'green' was involved (Holden & Sparrowhawk 2002). Ecotourism is: "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people" (TIES 1990). Eco-tourists can range along a continuum from soft to hard depending upon the type of experience they seek (Holden & Sparrowhawk 2002; Weaver 2002). Preece and Oosterzee (1995) described ecotourism as constantly changing and unidentifiable. A lack of consensus remains (Buckley 2009a, 2009b; Dawson 2009; Donohoe & Needham 2006; Weaver & Lawton 2007), but all agree that its aims are to change how the industry operates, and to improve understanding of tourism as a social phenomenon.

There are also issues associated with the popularity of the ecotourism. For example, in some countries, partnerships have been used by both ecotourism and mainstream

tourism sectors as a political mechanism to gain preferential access, operating permits, and development rights (Buckley 2004). Although a small number of excellent examples reveal the success of ecotourism in reducing negative environmental effects, such success generally relies on the good will of individual tourism operators (Buckley 2008; Vasconcellos-Pegas & Stronza 2008). In addition, ineffective eco-certification programmes may promote misleading advertising that some operators have achieved higher environmental performance than the rest of the tourism industry (Buckley 2009b). In some cases, Preece and Oosterzee (1995) observed that many industry members at that time avoided the label 'ecotourism' because of a sometimes misleading and poor image.

Despite divergent definitions, ecotourism has ideal, distinguishing characteristics: the promotion and practice of learning and education; natural and cultural quality; and environmental, economical, and socio-cultural sustainability (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006; Weaver 2008). Sirakaya et al. (1999), informed by consultations with ecotourism operators in the US, considered ecotourism to involve non-consumptive and educational visits to low-use sites of high natural, cultural, or historical quality. Black and Crabtree (2007) addressed the importance of minimising tourism's negative impacts whilst maximising positive outcomes. Holden and Sparrowhawk (2002) emphasised environmental conservation and community empowerment.

On the other hand, nature-based tourism means travel to unspoiled locations in order to experience and enjoy nature while moderate and safe forms of exercise, such as hiking and camping (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006). The term is different from ecotourism though they share some commonalities (Preece & Oosterzee 1995, p.10) or indeed have been described as the same (Boo 1990). The focus of ecotourism on education, learning, and conservation distinguishes it from nature-based tourism. This view is shared by the Australian National Ecotourism Strategy (CDoT 1994), the Ecotourism Society in the USA (Ceballos-Lascurain 1996), Forestry Tasmania (1994), and Weaver (2002).

I argue that the debates and issues over ecotourism come from misunderstandings which lead to the unrealistic expectation that ecotourism has a fixed definition or classification. This perspective is supported by Preece and Oosterzee (1995) who believed ecotourism could be seen as a process, rather than already matured and developed, and noted that the whole industry is changing rapidly. They argued that the importance of ecotourism

is as a force contributing to the general greening of tourism, essential for the ecological and sociological advancement and sustainability of the industry, and more significant than its categorisation as a niche market of small operators. Weaver (2002) claimed that many researchers and practitioners are arguing that ecotourism can also occur as mass tourism, and can do so without necessarily sacrificing any of its core criteria. Weaver pointed out that Japan's Mount Fuji National Park, an ecotourism destination, is an example of mass tourism which attracts 25 million visitors each year. That is to say, rather than arguments over which term to employ, the focus of tourism should be the outcomes and associated impacts on the natural, cultural, and social facets of the host settings. All forms of tourism should be part of the spectrum of ecotourism regardless of their scales. Considering their significant values as well as the threats they are facing, social and environmentally responsible protected area tourism is critical.

2.3.2 Concerns for tourism and recreation in protected areas

Natural and cultural resources in protected areas are not unlimited, but are vulnerable, valuable, and often irreplaceable. The more attractive a site, the more popular it may become, and the more likely it will be degraded due to heavy visitation (Hillery et al. 2001). Based on the three types of potential risks outlined by Eagles et al. (2002), the range of concerns is now described.

In a study of protected areas in fifty-one countries, recreation and tourism were identified as the most common initiators of concern (Leverington et al. 2008). Eagles et al. (2002) argued that these concerns are of three types. The first is the environmental cost due to damaged ecosystems, including soil, vegetation, water, air, and wildlife. Another concern is socio-cultural costs, such as impacted local culture and the loss of integrity and authenticity if traditions become commercialised. Such costs can also be disturbance of community activities by competition for recreation places and other services, or prohibiting communities from traditional uses of the land. The financial and economic costs are a third concern. As a result of increased visitation, the demands for services and facilities as well as the cost for their maintenance can impose significant burdens on management agencies. Moreover, although economic benefit is usually the driving force behind tourism and recreation developments in protected areas, research has shown that the benefit to local communities remains uncertain. For example, the report *Trends in protected areas* found that the economic benefits from protected area

tourism to Indigenous communities as stakeholders are unknown (Gurung 2010).

Research into the influence of tour operators on tourism-dependent economies revealed that local economic linkages in the supply chain need to be addressed if the industry is to contribute to socio-economic welfare in developing countries (Tapper 2001). A review measuring park effectiveness in 49 tropical protected areas found that some of the initiatives that aim for linkages to local socioeconomic development have been successful, but in general expectations need to be tempered regarding the capacity to alleviate poverty (Naughton-Treves et al. 2005).

In addition to the concerns raised by Eagles, another concern associated with associated with recreation and tourism in protected areas is privatisation. A further concern in protected areas is privatisation. Licensing private visitor accommodation can exclude recreationists from access and thus reduce public support for this kind of development. This also opens to question utilising public goods for generating private profits from commercial tourism operations. Research into privatisation in the Philippines revealed that poorly planned coastal tourism and housing development resulted in deprivation and marginalisation of local communities and degraded coastal areas (Cabral & Aliño 2010). The research also suggested that appropriate governance systems, coherent policies, standards, and strong enforcement of policies in leasing the coastal commons are essential to avoid the unwanted consequences. The conflicts over the locations of accommodation infrastructure in the Tasmania Wilderness World Heritage Area (TWWHA) were also addressed by Kirkpatrick (2001), who argued that in general, accommodation facilities were best placed outside national parks in order to avoid loss or degradation of values. Accommodation outside national parks where infrastructure is available is also more economically sensible.

2.3.3 Planning approaches for tourism and recreation management in protected areas

Managing protected areas against deterioration while enhancing their values, and addressing stakeholder conflict is challenging. A wide range of approaches has been designed to guide land managers to deal with visitor use problems. Frameworks include the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum, Limits of Acceptable Change, Visitor Impact Management, Visitor Experience and Resource Protection, Visitor Activity Management Programme, and the Tourism Optimisation Management Model. This

section will be limited to addressing the approaches that are used by the TPWS in their planning processes (TPWS 2002a). A reserves standards framework adopted by the TPWS is also included due to the context of my case studies in Tasmania. The frameworks are discussed separately in terms of their definitions, applications, advantages, limits, and relationships with other approaches. This does not mean that they are mutually exclusive, or that one is better than the others. The decision about a preferred approach or combination of approaches depends on the specific management objectives and issues at hand.

Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS)

ROS was developed by the US Forest Service as “a system for inventorying, planning and managing recreational resources on the basis of user experiences and for providing a range of recreational opportunity settings” (TPWS 1994b, p.29). An opportunity includes qualities provided by nature, qualities associated with recreational use, and conditions provided by management, while the settings are “the combination of physical, biological, social, and managerial conditions that give value to a place” (Clark & Stankey 1979, p.1). Six setting attributes that can influence the opportunities for recreation were proposed (Clark & Stankey 1979):

1. access: controlled by the managers according to the types of access and by the means of conveyance allowed;
2. compatibility between non-recreational resource uses and various opportunities for outdoor recreation;
3. onsite management: extent, apparentness, and complexity of modifications such as facilities and landscaping;
4. appropriate level of social interaction;
5. acceptability of visitor impacts;
6. acceptable regimentation: the nature, extent, and level of control over recreational usage.

Based on the qualities, a range of recreational settings can be distinguished and labelled, from remote natural wilderness through to urban and developed settings, in order to offer visitors a range of high-quality outdoor recreation opportunities (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006). A diversity of ROS terminology has been used, with different labels deployed to describe settings with similar or the same features. Nevertheless, the labels of the settings are not important because they are the reflections of authors’ preferences rather than indicating any conceptual difference (Clark & Stankey 1979).

In the context of protected areas, this approach is intended to assess an appropriate diversity of recreation opportunities on a macro scale and can also be employed to assess the impacts of management decisions on the provision of recreation opportunities in a particular reserve (Brown et al. 2006). The spectrum can also be integrated with other landscape planning approaches such as Limits of Acceptable Change and zoning. Zoning is a technique that spatially categorises a planning area to assist the achievement of management goals and objectives (Lockwood 2006). For tourism, zoning involves decisions about what type of recreational opportunity will be provided and where, based on the degree of impact of a recreation type (Eagles et al. 2002). The ROS provides a foundation for dividing a destination into a range of sub-areas and a basis for eliminating inappropriate incremental development, and directs management towards achieving specific objectives in an individual zone of the overall planning area (Lockwood 2006; Worboys et al. 2006).

ROS is a practical process with principles that link supply with demand (Eagles et al. 2002). It recognises the demand for a variety of recreational experiences, gives main concern for satisfying the demand (TPWS 1994b) and promotes consideration of providing a variety of recreation opportunities for visitors, and encourages planners to consider management on a regional level (Brown et al. 2006). However, the idea of using the environment as a supply for recreation demand has also received criticism, for example, the emphasis on recreational or anthropocentric values at the expense of ecological values (van Oosterzee 1984).

Despite the prospects, challenges remain for the application of ROS. The approach may serve as a useful, systematic tool for managers to zone landscapes, but it does not necessarily reflect different visitor opportunities because visitors and managers may perceive the various attributes differently (Brown et al. 2006). Another challenge is that the setting indicators and their criteria must be accepted by managers before any decisions can be made, and that disagreement will affect the rest of the planning program (Eagles et al. 2002).

Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC)

Proposed and adopted by the US Forest Service for wilderness planning, LAC offers a way to develop goals for tourism in protected areas and determines the desirable


environmental and social conditions for visitor activities, and the required management actions (Eagles et al. 2002). LAC is based on the premise that human use causes damage and managers set measurable objectives as limits to the human-induced changes that will be allowed, and identify the remedies managers should provide (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006). The LAC system, which has been proposed as an alternative to the carrying capacity approach, lays emphasis on the conditions desired in the area rather than usage levels an area can sustain (Stankey et al. 1985). Carrying capacity was advanced during the 1970s as a technique for managing tourism in sensitive surroundings by setting limits to numbers based on a pre-determined level, derived from ecological, social, and physical analyses (Eagles et al. 2002). However, this approach, with origins in the natural sciences, suggests objectivity and a precision not warranted by its application to management involving subjective humans (Wight 1998). As a result, carrying capacity can be seen as working against protected area objectives designed to support appropriate visitor enjoyment and evaluation of the resource (Eagles et al. 2002). LAC can avoid many of the pitfalls of the carrying capacity approach in terms of public relations. This is due to the fact that usage limits defined in light of carrying capacity might be regarded as arbitrary by some users (TPWS 1994b). LAC has the flexibility to respond to the features of a particular protected area. In planning or monitoring visitor use, this forward-looking approach can offer considerable benefits over the largely ad hoc system of development and management that has existed in the tourism industry (Wight 1998). The approach incorporates opportunity classes which portray the different conditions that managers expect to encounter (or restore) in different parts of a recreation area (Brown et al. 2006; Wight 1998). Based on defined LAC for each opportunity class, a strategic and tactical plan for the area can be provided, with indicators of change that can be used to monitor ecological and social conditions (Eagles et al. 2002). For instance, the LAC has proven to be a useful means for deciding the most appropriate and acceptable resource and social conditions in wilderness areas (Dawson & Hendee 2009). In addition, adaptation is possible and change limits can be identified when they occur (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006). In trackless areas the acceptable change is more limited and may be defined in terms of the development of visibly trampled pads, whereas on existing tracks, more changes can be allowed and the limit may be defined in terms of specified levels of track erosion, campsite area or social impacts (Sawyer 1990).

On the other hand, LAC is a relatively time-consuming, costly and complex procedure (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006). The emphasis on reactive rather than predictive indicators (Sawyer 1990) can limit precautionary actions. For instance, there is inadequate reflection on the cumulative effects of tourism-recreation activities in surrounding areas, or little consideration of whether these activities offer the wisest use of environmental resources (Wight 1998). The exclusive focus on current issues and concerns may also result in a lack of strategic direction (Eagles et al. 2002; Dawson & Hendee 2009). Consequently, the approach may fail to address the importance of predicting the potential for future deterioration, the possibility that ultimately unacceptable damage may be in place before acceptable levels of impact are reached or noticed (TPWS 1994b). In response to this shortcoming, the approach can be modified to take future deterioration into consideration if acceptable limits are set in terms of anticipated as well as existing impacts (TPWS 1994b). However, this modification requires adequate research and monitoring to facilitate future impact trends (TPWS 1994b). Other shortcomings include the selections of standards and gaining stakeholder support (Newsome et al. 2002), or the adoption of arbitrary standards as a result of insufficient detailed ecological information for each site (Wight 1998). In order to meet demands from visitors or attract visitation, some managers may apply lower standards than are necessary to sustain the long-term environmental and cultural integrity of an area (Wight 1998).

Reserves Standards Framework

This framework is a strategic planning and an in-house management tool that defines standards and maintenance requirements for services and assets across parks and reserves in Tasmania (TPWS 2006). Two elements comprise the framework: a reserves standards framework classification and corresponding acceptable risk level. Visitor sites may be defined along a spectrum from ‘day use comfort’ sites at one end, through to ‘bushcamping remote or natural’ sites at the other (Table 2-2). According to the categories for each site, services, infrastructure, and visitor experiences at various levels are provided (TPWS 2006). For example, day use comfort sites are to cater for the visitor who can enjoy low-risk experiences associated with high-standard facilities. By contrast, visitors to remote or natural sites are offered the opportunities to stay for one or several nights with little, if any, infrastructure provided, together with high-risk experience possibilities.

Table 2-2 –Reserves standards framework site classification and the associated acceptable level of risk (DeLacy & Whitmore 2006, p.515)

<i>Reserves standards framework classification</i>	<i>Acceptable risk level</i>
Day use comfort	Low risk
Day use get away	
Easy access campers	
Bushcamping backcountry	
Bushcamping remote	
Natural	High risk

More than one level of service can be provided for each reserves standards framework site category. The level of service ranges from visitor centre (comfort), complex (backcountry), middle (get away) to basic (remote). To determine the level of service at a visitor site, a list of existing services is undertaken, documenting their location, type, and condition. The information is then stored within the TPWS Information Management System.

Comparisons can then be made between the existing service level and the model service level to determine the site's descriptive classification. The insights provided by such analyses can endow managers with foundations for strategic decision-making, such as that encompassed by the ROS, with respect to determining the desired levels of service.

2.4 Summary of implications for this thesis

Section 2.1 identifies the significance of protected areas. The system of IUCN categories also shows the current international framework for managing them. These contents support my decision to study reserves in Tasmania, and provide context and a better understanding of my study areas (see Chapter 5 for detailed descriptions). Section 2.2 discusses the critical role of protected area governance and the new paradigm of governance. This coverage adds understanding of the framework within which protected areas are managed, and shows the significance of a decentralised and participatory approach to tackle the challenges facing protected area governors. Knowledge of good governance can also assist in analysing how my study areas are currently managed. The tourism and recreation concerns described in Section 2.3 frame my analysis of the issues related to the proposed new tourism ventures in my study sites. The concerns indicate the need for a new approach that can facilitate public engagement in decision-making to solve problems. This is also the key motivation for considering sense of place in protected area governance and management frameworks and decisions. The ROS framework is used as a foundation for the application of sense of place to protected area management (as demonstrated in Chapter 8). The concept of 'sense of place' is the subject of the next chapter.

Chapter 3 **Sense of place**

The first purpose of this chapter is to elucidate the key concepts emerging from the people-place relationships (Section 3.1). These include ‘sense of place’, ‘place attachment’, ‘place identity’ and ‘place dependence’. The definitions of the concepts and associated debates are reviewed. My analysis reveals confusion over the definition of sense of place, which I address by clarifying the meaning the term for the purposes of this thesis. Measurements used to assess sense of place are also analysed (Section 3.2). This provides suggestions on appropriate measurements of the concept for my thesis.

The second point of this chapter is to address the significance (Section 3.3) and limits (Section 3.4) of sense of place research. By examining past research, potential applications of sense of place to protected area management are identified. The analysis also calls for a clarification of the terminology. More work on sense of place in natural environments is also suggested. Section 3.5 then deals with the definitions of the main concepts to be used in my thesis. The clarification of the concepts can help to avoid misunderstanding and misuse. The results from this chapter are used to inform the development of the theoretical model (Section 4.2) and survey questionnaire (Section 4.3.4).

3.1 Key concepts of people-place relationships

How people relate to their surroundings has been extensively explored and has resulted in a range of terminologies describing people-place relationships. Section 3.1.1 elaborates the diversity of terms by clarifying the meaning of sense of place and the two approaches that have been employed to identify the concept: phenomenological and operational. These approaches vary in their way of dealing with sense of place, with the operational approach yielding a general view of the concept whereas a phenomenological approach can be used to gain more in-depth knowledge. The differences between the approaches are discussed with examples. The discussion then leads to the importance of the physical environment, in terms of landscape characteristics, for creating sense of place.

Section 3.1.2 presents another example of the diversity and confusion over the terminologies involved with the people-place relationships. The different interpretations

of place attachment and the different perspectives of place attachment, mainly social and physical attachments, are examined. This then leads to arguments over the relationship among place attachment and the other two key concepts - place identity and place dependence. The meanings of place identity and place dependence are presented. This assists in the discussion of the similarities and differences between social attachment and place identity as well as physical attachment and place dependence. The arguments illustrate the need for more research into sense of place.

3.1.1 Sense of place

Sense of place has received substantial theoretical and empirical attention from diverse disciplines. In the 1950s and 1960s, a place was characterised by geographers simply as a physical location in space (Kaltenborn & Williams 2002). In the 1970s and 1980s, sense of place was dominated by environmental psychologists and human geographers (Beckley et al. 2007). Anthropology emphasised the cultural significance of places in day-to-day life (Gupta & Ferguston 1997). Sociologists and natural resource social scientists are relative newcomers to the discussion of the concept. They have taken an interest in implications of sense of place for resource policy, planning and management (Beckley 2003; Stedman 2003; Brandenburg & Carroll 1995; Cheng et al. 2003; Williams et al. 1992). As different disciplines have engaged with the concept, they have taken various approaches.

Shamai (1991) identified two broad categories, one more phenomenological, the other more operational. The phenomenological approach is more philosophically or descriptively oriented and does not try to define the abstract and illusive concept precisely (Shamai 1991). This approach treats sense of place as more of an idea than a well defined construct (Greider & Garkovick 1994; Hummon 1992; Kaltenborn 1998; Williams & Stewart 1998). Tuan (1979) believed 'sense' as in sense of place, has two meanings. One is visual and aesthetic, as places are locations that have visual impact. The other is the senses of hearing, smell, taste and touch, which require close contact with the environment. Similarly, Sell et al. (1984, p.75) argued that the place experience is a "total sensual experience". A corresponding view was expressed by Ryden (1993, p.38):

a knowledge of place is grounded in those aspects of the environment which we appreciate through the senses and through movement: colour, texture, slope,

quality of light, the feel of wind, the sounds and scents carried by that wind. This is literally a sense of place.

‘Place’ as the foundation of sense of place is described as a meaning-based idea dependent on human experiences and emotions. Heidegger (1971) formulated the concept of ‘dwelling’, describing an active, caring process by which individuals transform a house into a home. Stokols (1981, p.396) described places as “the nonmaterial properties of the physical milieu - the sociocultural residue that becomes attached to places as the result of their continuous association with group activities”. Hay (2002, p.156) claimed that “most phenomenological investigation advocates nothing more than complex than seeing particular places or environments from the inside out; from the empathising perspective of a particular place itself”. Canter (1991) and Ryden (1993) also addressed the contribution of experiences to a place. Cresswell (2004) and Tuan (1977, 1979) believed spaces become places only as they are imbued with meaning through value and lived experiences. Relph (1976) and Tuan (1971, 1977, 1979) expressed the humanistic and phenomenological traditions within geography, declaring that places encompass the physical setting and human experience and interpretation.

Sense of place from a phenomenological approach is socially-centred. The idea is referred to as place-based meanings, which are not intrinsic to the setting itself, but reside in human interpretations of the setting in particular contexts and circumstances. Sense of place can be conceived as a construct representing beliefs, emotions, and behavioural commitments concerning a particular geographic setting (Jorgensen & Stedman 2001, 2006). The way people elucidate a place reflects the meanings they attribute to the settings (Fishwick & Vining 1992; Greider & Garkovich 1994; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Kaltenborn 1998; Relph 1976; Stedman 2003; Williams & Stewart 1998) or their emotional and symbolic identification with place (Kaltenborn 1998). Mood and emotion are a fundamental component of a person’s relationship with a place (Russell & Snodgrass 1991). Tuan (1971, 1977, 1979) argued that places are incarnated by experience and aspirations of people that emphasise human emotions and relationships. Gunderson and Watson (2007) also pointed to the symbolic dimension of a place that expresses the more sweeping, intangible values, and place significance based on the intrinsic, cultural, and wild values of the landscape, as well as their role in cultural and social identity.

Within the phenomenological tradition, the more descriptive approach to sense of place provides some insightful accounts. However, the lack of systematic analysis (Tuan 1979) and the focus on a specific place make it hard to generalise from one place to another (Shamai 1991). The emphasis on a socially-constructed sense of place that overlooks the contribution of the physical environment can also fail to offer a thorough understanding of the idea. These drawbacks increase the difficulties in applying sense of place in empirical studies.

The recognition of nature as socially constructed places does not imply ignoring traditional natural science data (Kaltenborn 1998). On the contrary, there is common ground shared by human geography and ecology. They share three environmental orientations or central ideas: understanding the importance of history, working with and being conscious of different levels of spatial scales, and dealing with and interpreting subjectivity (Zimmerer 1994). Ecosystems are socially constructed places, and what the biologist or ecologist calls ecosystem coincides with what a geographer calls place (Williams & Patterson 1996). A place can serve as a unit of analysis for integrating natural and social science concepts of the environment that links nature, culture, and social relations in the creation of place (Patterson & Williams 2005).

The operational approach tries to be more precise in defining the concept for empirical study (Shamai 1991). In an operational definition, sense of place is regarded as an overarching concept which subsumes other concepts articulating connections between humans and spatial settings (Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Kaltenborn 1998; Pretty et al. 2003; Shamai 1991; Stedman 2003). Sense of place as an umbrella concept articulating people-place relationship expands the understanding of this complex and multi-dimensional idea. Some scholars attempt to give a more definite picture of sense of place and associate the idea with attitudes. Basso (1996) argued that the common ground shared by concepts of people-place relations is that they share strong similarities with the affective, cognitive, and conative components of attitude, which have accrued and never stop accruing from sensing places. Accordingly, Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) suggested that it is useful to consider sense of place as an attitude towards a spatial setting. Others argued that sense of place involves different types and degrees of feelings and thus engenders potential for classification and assessment. Kaltenborn (1998) believed sense of place was a complex affective bond of variable intensity with place.

Hay (1998) devised a conceptual overview of developmental stages of sense of place, which were varied by residential status (superficial, partial, personal, ancestral, and cultural). The superficial stage included those with virtually no sense of place, following examination of the development of sense of place amongst the residents, tourists, long-term campers, holiday home owners, and resident school children of Banks Peninsula, New Zealand. Studies attempting to assess sense of place are detailed in Section 3.2.

The operational approach recognises the contribution of physical environment to sense of place, by contrast with the phenomenological and its emphasis on social values. Shamai (1991) believed that place means human and physical environments combined. Places are re-conceived as dynamic arenas that are both socially constituted and constitutive of the social (Dixon & Durrheim 2000). Stedman (2003) argued they can be influenced by local community culture, but so might the nature of the physical environment influence community culture. Stedman (2008) also found that the way place meanings are created is both volitional and is shaped by structural factors, such as the material environment itself. Steele (1981) believed sense of place is the particular experience of a person in a particular setting or the pattern of reactions that a setting stimulates for a person. The setting here is referred to as a person's immediate and external environment and surroundings, including both physical and social elements that combine to influence the behaviour and experiences of both actors and audience. The significance of the physical dimension of sense of place is also identified by empirical studies. For example, an analysis of how people perceive and experience outdoor recreation environments showed that people perceived environment not only as self, social system, or emotional territory but also as an external physical place (Iso-Ahola 1980). Fuhrer et al. (1993) demonstrated that place attachment was based on affective meanings inhabitants attached to physical aspects and qualities of home and near-home territories. Brehm (2007) studied community attachment in rural environments and demonstrated both social and natural dimensions of such attachment. An exploration of the way in which individuals developed an attachment to place within two New Zealand West Coast rural communities revealed that localised identity was culturally constructed as well as drew upon particularised attributes within particularised landscapes (Sampson & Goodrich 2009). The works of Hammitt et al. (2006; 2009) and Raymond et al. (2010) also showed that attachments directly related to natural environment and the personal context of identity and dependence in natural resource management.

The recognition of both social values and physical environment implies sense of place is multi-faceted. Pretty et al. (2003) argued that place conveys various dimensions, such as physical size and tangible versus symbolic; known and experienced versus unknown and not experienced. When talking about the tangible aspect of 'place', Sack (1997) noticed some places are richer in natural elements or features than others (i.e., the attributes found in the landscape are foundations of attachment and satisfaction). Some conceptual models were also developed to describe place. Gustafson's (2001) used of a three-pole model, whereby meanings of place can represent the relationship between the self, the community, and the environment rather than being restricted to a single dimension. Figure 3.1 illustrates the structure of a place in terms of cultural and physical divisions (Sack 1997). 'Nature' means the physical environment which people can enter to experience or view. 'Culture' is divided between social relations and meaning. Every place has its meanings which reflect understanding of the world. Each realm contains several elements which may change over time and the character of a place depends on the mixture from which it is constituted.

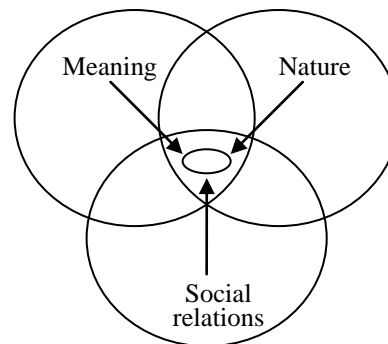


Figure 3.1 – The structure of a place (Sack 1997, p.61)

The literature has also shown the significance of the physical environment for the development of sense of place. Some scholars implied a direct relationship between landscape features and sense of place (Jackson 1994; Shields 1991; Shumaker & Taylor 1983). Some conceptualised sense of place as an experiential and interactive process amongst personal, social, and physical elements (Hummon 1992; Manzo 2003; Steele 1981; Williams & Patterson 1996). Ryden (1993) considered sense of place results gradually and unconsciously from inhabiting a landscape over time, becoming familiar with its physical properties and accruing a history within its confines. Johnston (1992) argued that the beauty of a place and the meanings that are bestowed on physical

landscape features all contribute to the formation of sense of place. A place can lack social value, but potentially every place can provide unique opportunities for expressing a sense of place, even to disinterested people or people who have not visited the place. Place features seem to be valued because, on their recollection or experience, they evoke desired emotional states (Hull et al. 1994). Through this experiential process, landscape features matter a great deal, creating meanings in people's lives.

A conceptual model (Figure 3.2) that was proposed to illustrate people-place relationships illustrates very well the importance of the physical environment to sense of place. Swanwick (2002) proposed that a place is composed of landscape characteristics that are natural, cultural or social, and perceptual or aesthetic. Land-based characteristics are perceived by people, transforming land into landscape. Landscape represents the relationship between people and places and results from the way that different components of the environment interact (Bohnet & Smith 2007). The model also shows that people-place relationships are not just about visual perception, but also how people hear, smell, and feel the surroundings, and the feelings, memories, or associations that they evoke.

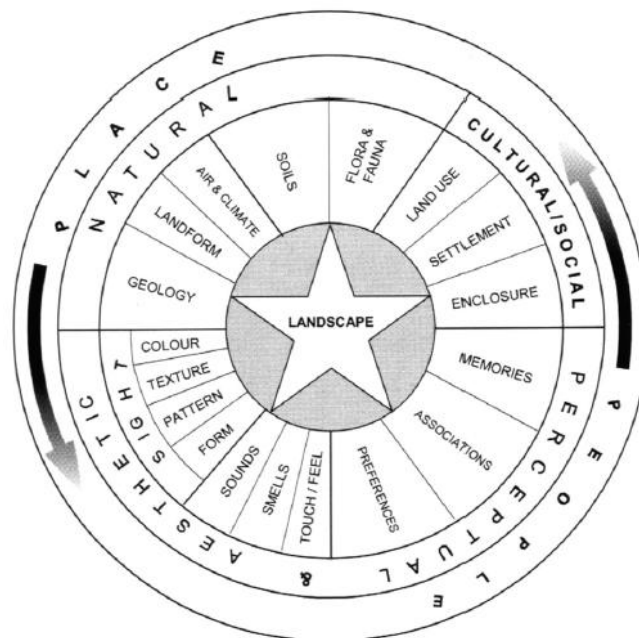


Figure 3.2 – The concept of landscape (Swanwick 2002, p.2)

Similarly, Beckley et al. (2007) used the term 'attachment' to describe the people-place relationships. They defined attachment as a complex phenomenon produced through

personal experience with socio-cultural and biophysical attributes of a spatial setting. Altman and Low (1992) reviewed sense of place research and identified four spheres of place-based meaning: (1) biological (evolutionary and physiological adaptations of the human species to particular environments); (2) environmental (people-place relationships created through the interaction of technologies and resources, adaptation of people to the constraints and opportunities of the environment, or the impact of the environment on all aspects of human habitation); (3) psychological (processes covering a broad array of factors, generally referring to individual experiences in places during childhood, adult life, or to especially significant events in a persons' life), and (4) socio-cultural (the way place attachments involve culturally shared affective meanings and activities associated with place that derive from socio-political, historical, and cultural sources). Cheng et al. (2003) similarly characterised sense of place as the intersection of three spheres of meaning: (1) biophysical attributes and processes, (2) social political processes, and (3) social and cultural meanings. A similar three-part definition was put forth by Stedman (2003), with the inclusion of human behavioural and psychological processes. Buttimer (1980) also argued that any place can have symbolic, emotional, cultural, political, and biological meanings.

Research has also demonstrated the direct or indirect influence of various dimensions associated with place. Place attachment is an example of such dimensions and will be discussed in more detail in the next section. For the social dimension, Brown et al. (2003) found that place attachment is high for individuals who have a strong sense of neighbourhood cohesion and control. Rogan et al. (2005) examined a sense of belonging and identified its association with feelings of pride, ownership, responsibility, and comfort. On the other hand, the physical dimension of sense of place has also been widely recognised. For instance, Hummon (1992) and Ryden (1993) demonstrated that landscape features are predictive of certain meanings related to sense of place. Research into special or favourite places revealed the importance of the physical attributes of these places (Derr 2002; Eisenhauer et al. 2000; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Min & Lee 2006). Studies have also shown that the formulation of place attachments can be particularly influenced by natural characteristics (Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Kemmis 1990; Schroeder 1996; Wilkinson 1991); landscape attributes (Clark & Stein 2003; Jorgensen & Stedman 2006) or landscape type (Kaltenborn & Bjerke 2002; Warzecha & Lime

2000; Williams et al. 1992). More specifically, place characteristics that can affect sense of place can be architectural elements (Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001) or the condition and quality of a place (Hull et al. 2001; Ng et al. 2005; Rivlin 1987). In many cases, the way in which people sense a place involves more than one dimension. For example, Rogan et al. (2005) observed that participants in their study were intimately involved in an on-going relationship with the land, operating on personal, social, and biophysical levels. Stedman (2003) found place of escape and social place were two cognitive mediations of the positive influence of shoreline development on place attachment. Bonaiuto et al. (1999) found that people who perceive a quiet environment and aesthetic pleasantness of buildings have higher overall place attachments to homes and neighbourhood. Moore and Scott (2003, p.878) also found that recreation places are “sensed as a combination of setting, landscape, ritual, routine, people, personal experiences and in the context of other places”. For example, the availability of alternative locations was identified as a potential determinant of place dependence (Stokols 1981).

3.1.2 Place attachment

Two approaches defining place attachment have been identified. The first describes the idea as a concept that encompasses a wide range of positive sentiments; negative affect seems antithetical to attachment (e.g., Giuliani and Feldman 1993; Kyle et al. 2004b; Manzo 2003). For example, Hernandez et al. (2007) and Morgan (2010) defined place attachment as a long-term positively affected bond to place. Altman and Low (1992, p.8) believed the idea was an integrating concept that involves patterns of attachments (affect, cognition, and practice); places that vary in scale, specificity and tangibility; different actors (individuals, groups, and cultures); different social relationships (individuals, groups, and cultures) and temporal aspects (linear, cyclical). The diversity of place attachment is also reflected in a wide range of sentiments describing the people-place connections. Place attachment is referred to as an emotional investment in places (Hummon 1992); a preference, happiness, satisfaction and fondness for place (Hawla 1992); a sense of well-being, coherence and continuity among past, present and future selves in places (Pellow 1992); or emotional embeddedness, feelings of security, esteem, and belonging associated with places (Brown & Perkins 1992). Nevertheless, there are debates over this approach for its lack of distinguishing satisfaction from place attachment. Weidemann and Anderson (1985) argued that the two terms were different.

They believed place satisfaction is an attitudinal concept that defines a positive or negative affective response to a setting, whereas place attachment includes only positive emotions: a visitor may like a tourist destination because of the natural landscape, but may not feel attached to the place.

The second approach addresses feelings of affinity or closeness. For instance, place attachment as “a culturally determined phenomenon lies between the idea of panhuman tendencies and that of landscape affection as specific to an individual” (Riley 1992, p.15). It is a bonding phenomenon between people and a socio-physical milieu that is dynamic, enduring, affective, and positive (Altman & Low 1992; Brown & Perkins 1992; Brown et al. 2003; Giuliani & Feldman 1993; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Hummon 1992; Shumaker & Taylor 1983; Williams et al. 1992; Williams & Vaske 2003). For Ainsworth and Bell (1970) and Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001), place attachment is characterised by a tendency of individuals to maintain closeness to the object of attachment. The Spanish term *querencia* means place attachment, reflecting the observed tendency of humans and other animals to prefer to stay near to specific places where they were born or feel comfortable and secure (Sarbin 1983). When applying place attachment to natural settings, several writers in the area of environmental psychology and wilderness research (Stokols & Shumaker 1981; Williams et al. 1992) have also defined attachment in terms of an affinity to a physical place. The concept also represents the extent to which an individual values or identifies with a particular environmental setting (Moore & Graefe 1994) or the strength of perceived linkage to a place (Stedman 2003). Although Tuan (1980) did not mention place attachment as such, his explanation of rootedness as being at home in an unselfconscious way is a strong form of attachment. Place attachment is regarded as most profound when human relationships are embedded in current or past group affiliations and identity based on ethnic, racial, class, or cultural parameters (Giuliani 1991).

The literature indicates that most scholars have conceptualised place attachment as comprising two dimensions: social/emotional/symbolic/affective and functional/physical. Some authors have confirmed two factors of community attachment via factorial analysis. For instance, Riger and Lavrakas (1981) identified two dimensions of neighbourhood attachment: rootedness/physical attachment and

bonding/social attachment. Taylor et al. (1985) examined neighbourhood attachment and also obtained two factors: rootedness and involvement (equivalent to physical bonds) and local bonds (equivalent to social attachment). Fuhrer et al. (1993) found social and physical attachment when examining the affective bases of attachment to home and near-home territories in two neighbourhoods in Switzerland. Later, similar results were also obtained with a focus on recreational settings. For example, the place attachment scale developed by Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) revealed two factors when applied to university students. Moore and Graefe (1994) also confirmed the existence of functional place dependence and more affective place identity for the same place attachment scale.

Other attempts to assess place attachment with different approaches have resulted in similar findings. For example, symbolic and functional place meanings were identified by Schreyer et al. (1981) when interviewing visitors concerning the meaning of seven park units in Utah. Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) confirmed social and physical components of place attachment when measuring residents' affective feelings towards three spatial ranges (house, neighborhood and city) where social attachment was greater than physical attachment in all cases. Both functional and emotional bases for attachment were identified by Gunderson and Watson (2007), who used both quantitative and qualitative methods to uncover place meanings of the Bitterroot National Forest in Montana.

Additional perspectives of place attachment have been identified by other researchers. Kaltenborn (1998) regarded place attachment as place dependence and functional aspects, identity formation, roots and embeddedness, satisfaction and experiences. Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) studied a recreation river and identified three place attachment dimensions: place identity, place dependence, and lifestyle. However, these results are not sufficiently conclusive as to undermine the weight of evidence pointing to the social and physical dimensions of place attachment.

Predominantly, many natural resource social scientists have confirmed the term place dependence for functional attachment and place identity for emotional attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Johnson 1998; Kaltenborn 1997a, 1997b, 1998; Moore & Graefe 1994; Vaske & Kobrin 2001; Vorkinn 1998;

Vorkinn & Riese 2001; Warzecha & Lime 2001; Watson et al. 1991, 1994; Williams et al. 1992, 1995a, 1995b; Williams & Roggenbuck 1989; Williams & Vaske 2003).

However, other researchers considered place attachment as a separate place dimension, to be examined alongside place identity and place dependence (Jorgensen & Stedman 2001, 2006; Stedman 2002, 2003). Yet, some did not differentiate between place attachment and place identity (Brown & Werner 1985; Stedman 2003; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996), while Lalli (1992) treated place attachment as a component of place identity; Pretty et al. (2003) thought place attachment and place dependence were separate concepts. Based on their research into the residents of a city in the north of Italy, Rollero and Piccoli (2010) found that place attachment and identification were two distinct but correlated components.

Functional attachment and place dependence

‘Functional attachment’ addresses the use of a resource to satisfy a need or goal, such as specific activity needs in recreation settings, whether these activities are passive, such as viewing scenery, or involve close and active physical contact with the resource, like rafting or kayaking (Warzecha & Lime 2001; Williams & Roggenbuck 1989). For example, one hiker may be attached to a setting which provides preferred trails, while another person could be equally attached to the same place because of nostalgic memories about earlier trips with family (Schreyer et al. 1981). The emphasis on the needs fulfilled by the resources of a place corresponds to another term – place dependence.

Place dependence is “a perceived association between persons and the environment” (Brown 1987, p.522) and is established when the occupants perceive that an available place meets their needs better than alternative places (Watson et al. 1991). This idea concerns the degree to which occupants perceive themselves to be functionally associated with and dependent on a particular place or a category of functionally similar places (Stokols & Shumaker 1981). This functional perspective reflects the importance of a place in providing conditions that support an intended use (Schreyer et al. 1981), such as timber harvesting or horse-riding (Jacob & Schreyer 1980). In other words, place dependence is associated exclusively with available activities that take place in a setting and the quality of the activities provided by the setting in comparison with alternatives (Pretty et al. 2003; Stokols 1981).

Two components are essential to place dependence. The first is an individual or group assessment of the quality of a specific setting to facilitate and support the user-specific goals or desired activities (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Graefe 1994; Schreyer et al. 1981; Stokols 1981; Stokols & Shumaker 1981; Warzecha & Lime 2001; Williams & Roggenbuck 1989). Another is the awareness of existing alternatives, which involves the quality of a particular place as it compares to alternative sites or settings that may also satisfy needs or goals (Gunderson & Watson 2007; McCool & Martin 1994; Stokols & Shumaker 1981; Shumaker & Taylor 1983). Therefore, place dependence may increase when the place is close enough to allow for frequent visitation (Williams & Vaske 2003). In a residential setting, if a neighbourhood serves a range of needs which are concentrated and are served in ways that are anchored both by time and group membership or group identity, roots to that area – equated with place dependence - are likely to be deep (Rivlin 1987).

Emotional attachment and place identity

Emotional attachment is the symbolic connection people feel with a place (Williams & Roggenbuck 1989). A deep emotional tie to a favorite weekend hideaway or an identity with a particular setting could signify the emotional attachment (Warzecha & Lime 2001). The attachment is so closely connected with place identity that they appear to be the same. The concept that regards place identity as emotional attachment has most often been associated with the social aspects of self-identity; place components are subordinated to identity formation (Korpela 1989). For instance, Fried (2000) claimed the central aspects of identity formation include family history, gender roles, ethnic commitments, and social relationships within a bounded space. The social relations indicate the vital role of other people in forming the place identity of individuals, by sharing attitudes about what is good or bad or right or wrong about a particular physical setting (Proshansky et al. 1983). The perceptions of similarity between people's values and place meanings lead to a feeling of belongingness to a place, which is not only one aspect of place identity, but a necessary basis for it (Korpela 1989). These so called 'agglutinated opinions and experiences' rendered by the individual (Proshansky et al. 1978, 1983, 1987; Sarbin 1983) indicate individuals' attempts to regulate their environments (Korpela 1989), and thus result in the formation of self-identity.

On the other hand, others argued that place identity means more than emotional attachment. For instance, place identity involves belonging to territories or places which helps people to derive much of the sense of who we are and much of our self-esteem (Twigger-Ross et al. 2007). Proshansky et al. (1983) argued that place identity is characterised by the combination of attitudes, values, thoughts, beliefs, meanings, and behavioural tendencies, reaching far beyond emotional attachment and belonging to particular places. The social, cultural, and biological definitions and cognitions of place are part of the person's place identity (Korpela 1989): the physical perspective of places is as important as the social perspective in developing place identity. Some scholars have noted the development of place identity in relation to the physical environment or the contribution of place attributes to one's self-identity (Korpela 1989; Krupat 1983; Proshansky et al. 1978, 1983; Rivlin 1987; Sarbin 1983; Shumaker & Taylor 1983). This conceptualisation highlights the significance of places in organising memory as well as providing expressive opportunities (Brown 1987). The place dimensions of identity mainly provide localised imagery for the most meaningful social experiences (Fried 2000). The place identity is expressed not only by one's relationships with others but also by relations to the physical settings that define and structure daily life.

Another factor that can influence place identity is the contact people have with a place over time. Although Proshansky et al. (1983) argued that place identity is not necessarily a direct result of any particular experience with the place, it is an individual's awareness and perception of the world represented by a collection of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas and related feelings about specific physical settings as well as types of settings. Some investigators have suggested that a history of repeat visitation due to place dependence may lead to place identity (Moore & Graefe 1994). Place identity generally involves a psychological investment that tends to develop over time (Giuliani & Feldman 1993), and has been described as the degree to which the environment is used to shape and nurture self-identity (Brown 1987; Ittelson et al. 1976; Proshansky et al. 1978, 1983, 1987; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996; Watson et al. 1991). Place identity has also been described as a component of personal identity, a process by which through interaction with places, people describe themselves in terms of belonging to a specific place (Hernandez et al. 2007). Such self-identity is rooted in many aspects of daily life, such as places frequently visited or remembered (Belk 1988; Sack 1988).

3.2 *Measurement of sense of place*

This section describes methods used to assess concepts related to sense of place. The advantages and limitations of each method are analysed, leading to the choice of appropriate measurement methods for my study sites.

Several methods have been used to evaluate the way people sensing a place. According to the approach being deployed, previous studies can be divided into six types. Type One research is the earliest quantitative research that uses “proxy measures” (p.13) to evaluate place attachment (Lewicka 2010b). For instance, Riger and Lavrakas (1981) and Taylor et al. (1995) used length of residence and house ownership to show the level of place attachment. However, these measures did not offer insight into place-based emotions, but rather were based on the assumption that positive bonds with places led to certain behaviours, and thus can be used as substitute measures of attachment (Lewicka 2010b).

Type Two addresses the affinity people have with a place and regards sense of place in terms of a series of phases or degrees. A set of clear-cut and straightforward statements are designed for respondents to identify the one that best describes their feelings. For example, Relph (1976) proposed the ways of sensing a place as involving seven degrees between ‘outsidedness’ and ‘insidedness’. In some cases, place attachment is treated as a phase of sensing a place. An illustration is the research conducted by Shamai and Kellerman (1985), who developed a four-level structure of sense of place. Shamai (1991) also proposed three phases of the concept (belonging, attachment, and commitment) and conceptualised the idea as having seven levels of intensity of feeling and behaviour.

Based on Shamai’s model, Williams et al. (1995a, 1995b) developed a seven-item scale with true/false statements representing various phases of community attachment.

Subsequently, Kaltenborn (1998) modified this construct and developed a scale to explore sense of place for a resource-dependent community in the Arctic region.

According to the scores on this place attachment scale, the respondents were split into three groups, indicating their levels of sense of place. More recently, Hay (1998) has differentiated five levels of sense of place from the superficial to ancestral and cultural. Although the results of Type Two studies are clear, the perspectives revealed by the scales are rather limited. The scales may not cover a wide range of place meanings such as the physical dimension of sensing a place. Yet, the true/false choice may be limited in indicating the nuances and variations of people-place relations.

The focus of Type Three is place attachment, which is assessed by a scale that contains statements describing people's feelings for a place. A five-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" is used. Each of the statements in the scale can be treated at the ordinal level or interval level where scale scores reflect an order or relative distance along the feelings being classified. The scale can be built by using a psychometric process (DeVellis 2003). Many of the natural resource social scientists such as Williams and Roggenbuck (1989), Fuhrer et al. (1993), Williams et al. (1992) and Williams et al. (1995a, 1995b) follow this procedure. Kaltenborn (1998) identified sense of place based on the scale of Shamai (1991) while Williams and Vaske (2003) modified the work of Williams et al. (1995a). The scale developed by Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) has also been adopted by scholars such as Bricker and Kerstetter (2000), Moore and Scott (2003), Kaltenborn (1997b), Jorgensen and Stedman (2001), Stedman (2002; 2003), Kyle et al. (2004c), Brown and Raymond (2007) and Raymond et al. (2010). However, the weakness of the scale developed by Type Three studies is the focus on place attachment. This results in the neglect of some perspectives of sense of place such as commitment to or willingness to sacrifice for a place.

Type Four studies are generally found within the domain of sociology, which seeks to understand how the symbolic meanings of settings influence the social context of human interactions (Greider & Garkovich 1994) such as group processes, identity, and the related area of community attachment (Brown 1993; Beggs et al. 1996; Goudy 1990). They emphasise residential settings, such as cities (Lalli 1992; Ng et al. 2005) and communities or neighbourhoods (Beckley et al. 2007; Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Cuba & Hummon 1993; Derr 2002; McCool & Martin 1994; Obst et al. 2002; Pretty et al. 2003; Puddifoot 1995). Type Four studies usually deploy more complex scales than is typical for Type Three. For example, multiple scales were developed in previous community studies (Clark & Stein 2003; Lalli 1992; McCool & Martin 1994; Obst et al. 2002; Pretty et al. 2003; Puddifoot 1995). Scales are not the only instrument used in this type of research; other approaches include open-ended questions (Cuba & Hummon 1993; Derr 2002), and data categorisation with photo narratives (Beckley et al. 2007) as well as a combination of a scale with open-ended questions (Brown et al. 2003).

In Type Five, researchers adopted Rokeach's (1973) quantitative ranking method for environmental values in which respondents are encouraged to make explicit a hierarchy of importance. Researchers have offered a list of potential values in relation to wilderness, national parks, or some specific study area to the study participants and asked for indications of how important each is (Brown & Reed 2000; Cordell & Stokes 2000; Haas et al. 1986). The limitation of this method is the difficulty in discerning why people value what they do; researchers may be leaving out some existing critical subset of meanings by predetermining a list of values to be ranked (Gunderson & Watson 2007). Patterson and Williams (2005) also believed there was a lack of conceptual clarity in research on values of place that limits the ability to accrue a systematic and coherent body of knowledge.

Type Six employed qualitative methods to explore a person's whole relationship to a location. For instance, Amsden et al. (2010), Kerstetter and Bricker (2009), Stedman et al. (2004), Stewart et al. (2004) and Beckley et al. (2007) used self-employed photography and interviewed participants about their photographs to analyse residents' sense of place or attachments to a place in terms of elements that foster such attachments. The resident-employed photography practice allows the respondents to use their own images and words to explain complicated notions such as sense of place (Amsden et al. 2010). Insights into specific locations and environmental attributes or elements to which people are attached can also be revealed. These methods led to insights would not have been apparent had traditional techniques been used to capture the meanings of sense of place (Kerstetter & Bricker 2009). Davenport and Anderson (2005) employed an interpretive research approach in terms of inductive or theory-generating data collection and analysis techniques to gain an in-depth understanding of river meanings from a particular community subgroup. Focusing on the level of emotional disruption due to a disturbance event, Gunderson and Watson (2007) used qualitative research methods to capture the relationship people have with the Bitterroot National Forest. By examining people's connections to places as expressed through their own words, the subjective, lived experiences people have with nature can be captured (Davenport & Anderson 2005). Brandenburg and Carroll (1995) also found that compared to quantitative approaches, managers can learn more about stakeholder perspectives from qualitative research because what is shared extends beyond what

interviewees would have been willing to express in the context of more traditional public involvement frameworks. However, Amsden et al. (2010) pointed out the limitations surrounding the inferences and generalisations that can be made from a qualitative approach. They argued that the analysis could also be influenced by the researchers' pre-existing biases and a lack of innate cultural understandings of the place.

Each type of measurement has its advantages and weaknesses. Using only one method may not be sufficient to express the multi-faceted idea of sense of place. The quantitative approach can systematically evaluate the strength of sense of place. However, such an approach does not by itself point out the nature or the importance of the phenomenon. On the other hand, qualitative approach can capture the meanings that people attribute to a place. Therefore, multiple methods are needed to effectively explore the complexity and multiple facets of sense of place. For instance, Jorgensen et al. (2007) used a postal questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to reveal residents' perceptions of the underlying meanings of the woodland. The measurement methods used in my thesis are detailed in Section 4.3.4.

3.3 Significance of sense of place research

The emergence of research on sense of place is a major topic in the human dimension of natural resource management (Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; Moore & Graefe 1994; Williams & Stewart 1998), and has become more prominent in a wide range of land management arenas, including protected area management. Understanding sense of place, its composition, and how it may be affected can provide land managers with in-depth information on the context of the reserve. The increasing focus on sense of place indicates that managers need to address a broad range of place-based meanings. This does not imply ignoring traditional natural science data, but the need to embrace a new form of management that integrates both social and ecological data in response to particular circumstances. As people confer particular meaning to the environment in ways that reflect their social and cultural experiences and interactions (Eisenhauer et al. 2000), no value associated with the natural environment can be understood independent of the context of particular human-environment relationships (Kaltenborn 1998; Williams & Patterson 1996). The importance of the human perspective is addressed by Peet (1998, p.48), who argued that place is the 'locales in which people find themselves, live, have

experiences, interpret, understand and find meaning'. Paying attention to both shared and contested meanings may lead to more productive dialogue because sense of place and place meanings are often connected to attitudes and expectations about appropriate and inappropriate management or use (Kruger & Hall 2008). The findings of Amsden et al. (2011) who studied residents' sense of place in a tourism-dependent community in Seward, Alaska suggested that meanings surrounding Seward's identity as a tourist destination could be causing people to engage in actions that further develop this identity. In examining qualitative aspects of people's thoughts and feelings for Illinois State Parks, Fishwick and Vining (1992) also found that recreational places are sensed not only as a setting or landscape but also as sites of ritual, routine and personal experience.

Exploring people's senses of place can help managers to understand place-specific values. Place qualities and landscape characteristics can be identified through evaluating the way people sense a place. This information can serve as a base for protected area categorisation and guidelines for developing appropriate management objectives. Place-based values can also provide a basis for comparison with further changes to the place that would be caused by new development. This is crucial for future decisions such as approving proposals for development in protected areas or placing conditions on such developments. Stewart et al. (2004) also discovered that residents' felt senses of their community have the potential to serve as visions for landscape change within strategic planning processes. They analysed the meanings of environments that connected participants to their community in Chicago metropolitan areas and identified that residents used places to learn about community, enact community, and improve community landscapes.

Place-based values also have mental benefit for individuals and society. Korpela (1989, 1992, 2009) showed that people actively used place-based meanings to regulate their self definitions and senses of coherence by humanising a favourite place, fixing memories there, and naming it. Korpela also found that the physical environment was used as a means of maintaining the psychic balance of pain and pleasure, the coherence of one's self and self-esteem. Place attachments have been acknowledged in psychology as significant in the development of self-identity (Searles 1960; Wenkart 1961).

Residential attachments can promote and provide stability, familiarity, and security (Brown et al. 2003). Human geographers argue that through personal attachments to geographically locatable places, people acquire a sense of belonging and purpose that

can give meaning to their lives (Buttimer 1980; Giuliani & Feldman 1993; Relph 1976; Shamai 1991; Tuan 1980; Williams & Roggenbuck 1989). People-place bonding can form a part of a conscious process where people interact with the physical environment to fulfil their needs, express themselves and develop their self-concept (Manzo 2003). Such connection can also represent family continuity and provide places of spiritual significance and emotional regulation; they can be vehicles for learning and personal growth (Rogan et al. 2005). Settings rich in features can also create a common symbol system that may evoke a shared past and be more likely to evoke a strong sense of community (McMillan & Chavis 1986). Place identity can increase feelings of belonging to one's community (Relph 1976; Tuan 1980). In addition, place-based values can contribute to a diverse environment that has mental benefits. For example, natural areas such as wilderness are valued because they may be perceived to remain relatively constant and untrammelled by humans, hence offering a constant basis of comparison (Haggard & Williams 1991). People have an intuitive sense for restorative environments such as wilderness and visiting such settings can give a sense of being away from the constraints of the everyday environment, of fascination and coherence (Kaplan 1983). This diversity has psychological benefits because it stimulates and satisfies people's psychological desires for novelty (Schwartz 2007).

Sense of place also has implications for land use planning. Williams and Stewart (1998) examined reasons for the increasing interest in sense of place and suggested a need to integrate the concept and management into the planning process in terms of: 1) knowing and using the variety of local names for places, 2) communicating management plans in locally recognised place-specific terms, 3) understanding the politics of places, and 4) paying close attention to places that have different meanings to different groups. Manzo and Perkins (2006) proposed an ecological model of land use planning that accommodates place attachments and meaning as well as social and physical aspects of community participation. This was based on the literature review that drew connections between the environmental and community psychology. For instance, Tapsuwan et al. (2011) discovered that sense of place (incorporating the notions of identity, attachment and dependence) can be used to predict intention to accept or reject land use planning decisions. Mitchell and colleagues (1997) reported that attachment to an area was an important reason for visiting the area, and noted the value of adding the affective

components of place in future planning by directly involving users in the planning process. Cheng and Mattor (2010) also found that insight into place-based meanings can assist in planning and complement and supplement traditional issue-based strategies by an examination of a national forest landscape assessment process in western Colorado.

Sense of place can assist managers in selecting key stakeholders for public participation processes. How users relate to a place is associated with attitudes that can influence how they respond to changes and why they resist imposed change. Such information in decision-making would help policy-makers to devise appropriate planning and management strategies. Warzecha and Lime (2001) analysed place attachment and found it a useful variable for segmenting visitors who differ in their preferences and attitudes concerning recreation settings. Vorkinn and Riese (2001) examined the relationship between place attachment and environmental concern. They found that residents' attachment to areas affected by hydropower development is a better predictor of attitudes toward the hydropower development overall than socio-demographic characteristics.

Williams et al. (1995b) studied residents' attachments to the community and to town and their relations with the attitudes towards tourism. The outcomes revealed that attached residents are favourable toward tourism. Place attachments have been found to be related to attitudes to management priorities for resource protection in a study comparing the perspective of the community with that of tourists regarding place attachments in a World Heritage Site in Southern Norway, where there is a wilderness-type national park and a historic mining town (Kaltenborn & Williams 2002). Research into place attachments and levels of support for specific management actions in the Canyonlands National Park indicated that river users on the Green and Colorado Rivers with a high level of attachment expressed less support for potential management actions such as reserving campsites and maintaining a predetermined itinerary (Warzecha & Lime 2001).

Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) discovered place dependence was positively related to support for management development of amenities, trails, and extractive uses, whereas place identity decreased support. Some evidence suggests place identity was a significant positive moderator of support for fee programs as well as spending fee revenues, whereas place dependence was unrelated to fee support policies (Kyle et al. 2003a; McCool & Martin 1994). Hull et al. (2001) discovered that locals living near a national forest valued an appropriate balance between human amenities and high-quality natural environments, which influenced participant evaluations of federal forest management.

Understanding the way people sense a place can also provide insight into the users of that place. People-place relationships can influence how they perceive, experience, and value the place (Cheng et al. 2003; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Manzo 2003, 2005; Stedman 2003) and even how they react to environmental effects (Kaltenborn 1998). For instance, Mowen et al. (1997) found that evaluations of setting and experiences were more positive as attachments increased in intensity after examination of place attachment and activity involvement to understand visitor evaluations of a national recreation area. Place attachment was found to be associated with higher sensitivity to tourism impacts (Kyle et al 2003a; McCool & Martin 1994; Williams et al. 1992; Young et al. 1990). Groups strongly attached to a place seem to be more affected by increasing tourism than those expressing a moderate or weak sense of place (Kaltenborn 1998). Warzecha and Lime (2001) investigated how visitors assess the setting attributes in the Canyonlands National Park and demonstrated significant differences in tolerances for encountering other watercraft between those with different levels of place attachment. The study of activity involvement and place attachment on hikers on the Appalachian Trail revealed that respondents scoring high on the place identity dimension were more likely to report feeling crowded, while respondents scoring high on the place dependence dimension were inclined to assess setting density more favourably (Kyle et al. 2004a). That sense of place is related to the environmental impacts can be because place meanings can be affected or lost as a result of human decisions and activities. The physical landscape may change to a degree that preferred meanings become untenable (Stedman 2003). Experiencing environmental degradation with damaged biophysical components can lead people to reassess their perspective of the land and influence the way they structure their relationship with their surroundings (Rogan et al. 2005).

The literature has shown that evaluating sense of place can provide better knowledge of recreational behaviours. The significance of understanding the needs and behaviour of the users was identified in a review of current practices of Australian protected area agencies (Griffin & Craig 2010). Understanding how users related to a place can lead to more closely targeted provision of facilities and recreation opportunities and to enhanced visitor satisfaction (Cochrane 2006; Moore & Graefe 1994). Schreyer et al. (1981) studied four-wheel drivers of the Canyonlands National Park and found that better understanding of the kind of experience visitors pursued helped to identify whether their

orientation was to place itself or to the activity. Kaltenborn (1998) found that sense of place had played an important role in the substitution of recreation settings for some users. Those expressing a weak sense of place reported that they would choose other areas for recreational activities in the event of potential environmental disturbance associated with tourism, as well as oil and gas exploration in the Norwegian high Arctic islands.

Assessing sense of place can also assist in resource-based conflicts that affect recreation and tourism resources and opportunities. In the research into implications of place meanings for managers and practitioners, Stedman (2008) argued that the meanings may help managers understand phenomena such as conflict over land use. Williams and Vaske (2003) stated that natural resource management commonly involves some level of conflict among different groups of stakeholders who are attached to the same resources; at the heart of such conflicts is competition by people over the allocation and distribution of scarce resources as a result of different meanings they assign to the same resources. Thus, measuring sense of place and examining the commonalities and divergences in stakeholder groups can provide managers with insight into such conflicts and may offer paths to resolution. Moreover, natural resource conflicts are often premised on an 'insider-outsider' distinction in values, preferences, interests, and lifestyles, or in political power, whether defined as locals versus tourists, local versus national interests, seasonal versus permanent residents, or newcomers versus old-timers (Blahna 1990; Brown & Raymond 2007; Egan & Luloff 2000; Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; Knaap et al. 1998; Selman 1998; Weber 2000). Yet, the empirical support for such distinctions between insiders and outsiders is often weak or absent (Nelson 1997). For example, Blahna (1990) found that although there were value differences between newcomers and long-term residents, people from these two groups worked together in the opposition to forest clear-cutting. Research into sense of place for the Rattlesnake National Recreation Area near Missoula, Montana, between mountain bike riders and hikers with colliding interests discovered similar environmental attitudes, interests in the setting, and attachments to the wilderness resource (Watson et al. 1991). Williams and Stewart (1998) also found that conflicts between American Indians who ascribed sacred value to geologic formations, and rock climbers who valued the challenge of cliff faces, were not an issue until the values of both groups converged in the same place.

Studies have also showed sense of place is related to environmentally responsible behaviours and positive feelings. Therefore, maintaining the people-place relationships that lead to the behaviours and feelings can be a way of encouraging visitors to take initiatives to look after the place. For example, Kaltenborn (1998) discovered that those articulating a strong sense of place are distinguished by a generally stronger interest and willingness to contribute to solutions to environmental problems. On the other hand, people reporting a weak sense of place are characterised by a larger degree of indifference, not reacting to the problems or willing to contribute to finding solutions. The findings of a study of place attachment and environmental attitudes in India suggested that enhancing emotional connections with places can lead to increased environmental care and concern (Budruk et al. 2009). An examination of the linkages between place-based meanings and conservation program involvement in the Community Baboon Sanctuary in Belize revealed a significant relationship between initiative involvement and higher perceived benefits and place attachment toward riparian forests and conservation (Wyman & Stein 2010). Other studies showed that place identity or place attachment with natural areas promoted environmentally responsible or pro-environmental behaviours (Halpenny 2010; Hernandez et al. 2010; Vaske & Kobrin's 2001). The study of residents' attachments to two towns in British Columbia, Canada also supported the claim that individuals who were more attached to the natural aspects of their areas reported engaging in more pro-environmental behaviors (Scannell & Gifford 2010). Stedman (2002, p.577) noted: "We are willing to fight for places that are more central to our identities and that we perceive as being in less-than optimal conditions". These constructive behaviours can also lead to positive visitor experiences and vice versa. Visitors can be made aware of and maintain values while they participate in desired activities (Eagles et al. 2002). People may form bonds with particular landscapes or places because their use has come to symbolise the user's sense of identity (Williams & Vaske 2003). It can be this sense of identity that leads to positive feelings. Utilising positive experiences within the environment is a potent means of generating support for conservation initiatives, while negative experiences may lead to feelings of helplessness and despair and the abandonment of conservation programs (O'Brien 1995). However, there are also conflicting findings showing that place attachment is associated with less pro-environmental behaviour (Uzzell et al. 2002). A survey of the relationship between farmers' pro-environmental behaviour and

their place attachment in northwest Victoria, Australia showed that place attachment was not related to vegetation protection behaviours (Gosling & Williams 2010).

3.4 Limits of sense of place research

Though sense of place is widely recognised and studied, my literature discussion has identified gaps in knowledge. For instance, a focus of previous work has been to explore the sense of place of a single group (Table 3-1). Residents are one of the most popular choices for sense of place research. This is due to the long history of community research on how people feel about their community and surroundings (Kaltenborn & Williams 2002). Many studies have tended to follow this path. Studies of one particular sample group are also more common than research that compares several sample groups. There are few exceptions, including research into visitors and students (Williams et al. 1995a; Williams & Vaske 2003) or adults and adolescents (Pretty et al. 2003). Vitterso et al. (2001) attempted to explore the relationship between recreational modes and optimal experiences among sport fishers, canoeists, and hikers. Hay (1998) also compared the difference of sense of place between people of Maori and European descent as well as amongst tourists, long-term campers, holiday home owners, and resident school children.

Table 3-1 –Focus populations in sense of place research

<i>Study subjects</i>	<i>Reference</i>
Residents	Beckley et al. 2007; Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Broto et al. 2010 Brown et al. 2003; Csikzentmihalyi & Rochberg 1981; Cuba & Hummon 1993; Eisenhauer et al. 2000; Fried 1963; Fried 2000; Fuhrer et al. 1993; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Hay 1998; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Hull et al. 1994; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Kaltenborn 1997ab; Kaltenborn 1998; McCool & Martin 1994; Ng 2005; Pretty et al. 2003; Rogan et al. 2005; Saegert 1989; Stedman 2003
Students	Korpela & Hartig 1996; McAndrew 1998; Shamai 1991; Williams et al. 1995a; Williams & Vaske 2003
Children	Chawla 1992; Derr 2002; Min & Lee 2006
Recreationists or visitors	Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Dixon & Durrheim 2004; Moore & Graefe 1994; Moore & Scott 2003; Vorkinn 1998; Warzecha & Lime 2001; Williams & Vaske 2003; Williams et al. 1992

Much research has also emphasised the social construction of sense of place and neglected the potentially important contributions of the physical environment. Despite the operational definitions of sense of place which often include the physical environment, these have not been sufficiently conclusive as to break the excessive weight given to the social dimension in the formation of sense of place. This observation was also endorsed by Brehm (2007), Brehm et al. (2006), Gunderson and Watson (2007) and Lewicka (2010a). Moreover, there is an emphasis in sense of place study on built settings while comparatively fewer studies focus on natural

environments (see Appendix 1). The lack of research in natural settings is also identified by Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) who addressed this scarcity and called for more related research. Moreover, Lewicka (2010b) argued that the focus of research into place attachment is the neighborhood. Gustafson (2006), Lalli (1992), Jordan (1996), Easthope (2004) and Nicotera (2007) provided some extensive reviews of various researches in place-related concepts in the built settings published in the last twenty years. It was not until the late 1980s that researchers began to think about and apply the concepts of place identity and place dependency to recreational environments (Warzecha & Lime 2001).

Another limitation of sense of place research is a lack of attention to how the concept can be applied to protected area governance and management. Although some such research is summarised in Section 3.3, further work is required to directly study the implications of sense of place. Farnum et al. (2005) reviewed place research and argued that research on and applications of sense of place and place attachment are still in their infancy.

The literature has also displayed the complex and confusing nature of sense of place measurements, as discussed in Section 3.2. This is as result of the various definitions and terminologies involved in describing the concept. Many scholars have pointed out the heterogeneous definitions and the lack of consensus and consistency regarding the terminology and concepts surrounding people-place relationships (Giuliani & Feldman 1993; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Lalli 1992; Manzo 2003; Trentelman 2009; Unger & Wandersman 1985). For example, a range of terminologies has been used by human geographers to describe how people relate to a place (Table 3-2), and such use does not serve to clarify sense of place (Shamai 1991).

Table 3-2 –Terminologies of people-place relations in human geography

<i>Terminologies</i>	<i>Reference</i>
Embeddedness	Brown & Perkins 1992
Ggeopiety	Tuan 1976, 1977
Insidedness	Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; Relph 1976; Rowles 1980; Tuan 1977
Place affiliation	Cuba & Hummon 1993
Place belongingness	Proshansky et al. 1983; Relph 1976
Place belonging	Brown & Perkins 1992; Jones et al. 2000; Ng et al. 2005
Relatedness/connectedness	Altman & Low 1992; Canter 1977; Lynch 1972; Relph 1976; Sack 1988
Rootedness	McAndrew 1998; Seamon 1979; Tuan 1980
Sense of place	Buttimer 1980; Buttimer&Seamon 1980; Hay 1998; Hummon 1992; Jorgensen&Stedman 2001; Relph 1976, 1997; Steele 1981; Tuan 1974, 1977, 1980
Topophilia	Tuan 1974

Various terms have been used to describe and to assess sense of place loosely and in misleading ways (Shamai 1991). Different terms are used in referring to the same meanings by different disciplines. This results in considerable overlap between the terms. For example, place attachment defined by environmental psychologist is equivalent to sense of place used by geographers (Altman & Low 1992; Brown 1987; Williams & Vaske 2003). Different definitions are assigned to the same term by different scholars. Some researchers do not differentiate between sense of place and place attachment (Altman & Low 1992; Beckley et al. 2007; Eisenhauer et al. 2000; Kaltenborn 1998; Warzecha & Lime 2001; Williams et al. 1995a, 1995b; Williams & Stewart 1998). On the other hand, several scholars believed that sense of place encompasses place attachment (Hummon 1992; Hay 1998; Kaltenborn 1998; Pretty et al. 2003; Stedman 2002, 2003) or that sense of place is an overarching concept which subsumes other ideas articulating relationships between humans and spatial settings (Hay 1998; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Kaltenborn 1998; Pretty et al. 2003; Stedman 2003; Shamai 1991). For example, Trentelman (2009) argued that while the word attachment implies a positive relationship with the place in question, sense of place is intuitively more conducive for considering negative as well as positive aspects of a relationship with a place.

3.5 Concepts and terminology to be used in this thesis

The lack of consistent terms and definitions describing sense of place can cause misunderstanding and misuse of the concept. This can impede advances in sense of place research. Therefore, it is important to define the concept clearly relative to the specific purposes and subjects of each study. The operational definition of sense of place is adopted in my thesis. My decision does not imply that the more phenomenological approach is not useful. The decision is based on the purpose of my thesis, which aims to explore the implications for protected area management. The operational interpretation of sense of place provides a basis for developing a better measurement of sense of place applicable to repeat assessment in different locations. Quantitative results can be produced that are convenient for analysis and the identification of patterns. Quantitative findings can also facilitate comparison and statistical aggregation with data from other protected areas. This is essential for communication and exchange of information among different management authorities.

The main concepts and terminology to be used in this study include sense of place, place attachment, place dependence, and place identity. Sense of place is an overarching concept that can subsume the terms articulating connections between people and places. It includes natural, cultural and social, and perceptual and aesthetic place-based meanings through sensational experiences. Place attachment means the tendency of the individual to maintain physical or emotional closeness and fondness for the object of attachment. It is a positive and affective bonding phenomenon between users and places. Place dependence is understood as functional attachment that associates exclusively with activities that take place in a setting. This concept concerns the degree to which occupants perceive themselves to be functionally dependent on a particular place or a type of functionally similar places that support an intended use. Place identity is defined as emotional attachment, which is characterised by the combination of attitudes, values, meanings, and behaviour tendencies towards particular places. This concept generally involves a psychological interaction with a place over time.

The literature review reveals considerable theoretical and tentative empirical support for the significance of sense of place to protected area management. However, gaps in the knowledge of sense of place have been identified. My thesis thus aims to fill in such gaps in sense of place research. The next chapter explains how this objective can be achieved. The way in which my thesis is conducted in terms of the methods and my overall research design is elucidated. The development, implementation, and the methods of analysis are also described.

Chapter 4 Methodology

The chapter's first section introduces a mixed-method approach as my overall research design strategy. This mixed-method approach provides the direction for my research design, from sampling, data collection, to data analysis. Theoretical foundations and the reasons for adopting mixed-methods, and the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative inquiry, are explained. In the second section, a conceptual model is developed to address my research objectives. This model is derived from past studies that have examined variables of interest for this study. The third section deals with the case study approach and the selection of particular cases for this research. Key stakeholders for each case are identified and a sampling framework is established. My sampling designs for selecting interview participants and questionnaire participants are explained. The fourth section explains the development and design of the self-administered survey questionnaire and the semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The last section explains the analytical approach for the interviews and questionnaires, with content analysis used for the former and statistical analyses for the latter.

4.1 Overall research design

As indicated in Chapter 1, the overall methodology of my thesis broadly follows the adaptive theory approach that is both inductive and deductive. This forms the theoretical grounds for my research design that are found in both qualitative and quantitative inquiry. The latter is most closely allied with deductive reasoning or experimental inquiry, whereby theory comes before empirical research and analysis, and theory is tested or measured against data (Bryman 1988). Theoretical propositions are generated in advance of the research process, and then modified by the empirical research (Mason 2002). Study conditions are controlled by changing or holding constant external influences and a very limited set of deductive outcomes or variables is measured (Patton 2002). In contrast, qualitative inquiry tends to be inductive: theory comes last and is developed from or through data generation and analysis. Theoretical propositions are developed from the data, in a process which is commonly seen as moving from the particular to the general (Mason 2002). The inductive inquiry minimises investigator manipulation of the study setting and places no prior constraints on the outcomes (Patton 2002).

My thesis draws on a combination of the qualitative and quantitative inquiry for my data collection and analyses, and incorporates them into my analytical explanations and arguments. The consequence is the mixed-method that has elements of both qualitative and quantitative inquiry. That different types of methods give access to different kinds of phenomena, or to contrasting samples of individuals and groups, makes it possible to explore phenomena and theories more thoroughly (Brewer & Hunter 1989). This can also produce different types of data on the same subject in terms of individual and general perspectives on issues of concern. For instance, qualitative inquiry adds depth and detail while statistical results generated by quantitative inquiry indicate global patterns that can be generalised across cases with similar contexts (Winchester 2005). Thus, better understanding of a phenomenon can be enhanced while the quality of my thesis is likely to be improved. Besides, the mixed-method offers cross-checking of results by approaching a problem from different angles and using different techniques. The opportunity to see a phenomenon from different perspectives can enhance the rigour as well as the validity of the data (Burgoyne 1994). Using a range of methods and data can build triangulation, which does not guarantee internal and external validity, but prompts in researchers a more critical stance towards their data (Fielding & Fielding 2008).

Another reason for adopting the mixed-method is to combine the strengths of qualitative and quantitative inquiry. Each inquiry approaches data collection with a certain set of assumptions and produces data which have inherent strengths and weaknesses (Burgoyne 1994). The complementarities of limitations in the mixed-method allow the researcher to compensate for particular faults and limitations of individual inquiry (Brewer & Hunter 1989). Qualitative inquiry, which allows field work to be approached without being constrained by predetermined categories of analysis, contributes to the depth, openness, and detail about a typically small number of people and cases (Patton 2002). This also gives a focus on the evidence that will enable the researcher to understand a personal situation and to use this information to illuminate issues and develop possible explanations (Gillham 2000). However, although the emphasis on meanings increases the depth of understanding of the cases and situations studied, it reduces generalisability (Patton 2002). By contrast, quantitative inquiry requires the use of standardised measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fitted into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which numbers

are assigned (Patton 2002). The advantage is the possibility of measuring the responses of a large number of people to a limited set of questions. This can facilitate comparison and statistical aggregation of the data, giving broad and generalised findings.

Elements from both inquiries were applied in a series of stages (Figure 4.1). The starting point was an inductive approach to determine my research objectives. Based on former studies, a research model was established that incorporated my research objectives. Case-study approach helped to determine the selection of protected areas to be investigated. A list of stakeholders was developed as a basis for identifying potential study samples. Based on the list, participants for interviews and questionnaires were selected. For the qualitative data collection, semi-structured interviews were used. Survey questionnaires with predetermined response categories were employed for the quantitative data. Half of the interviews were conducted before the design of the questionnaires and provided useful elements to assist the development of questionnaires. Content analysis of interviews and statistical analysis of questionnaires were then undertaken. Those methods are elaborated in sections to follow.

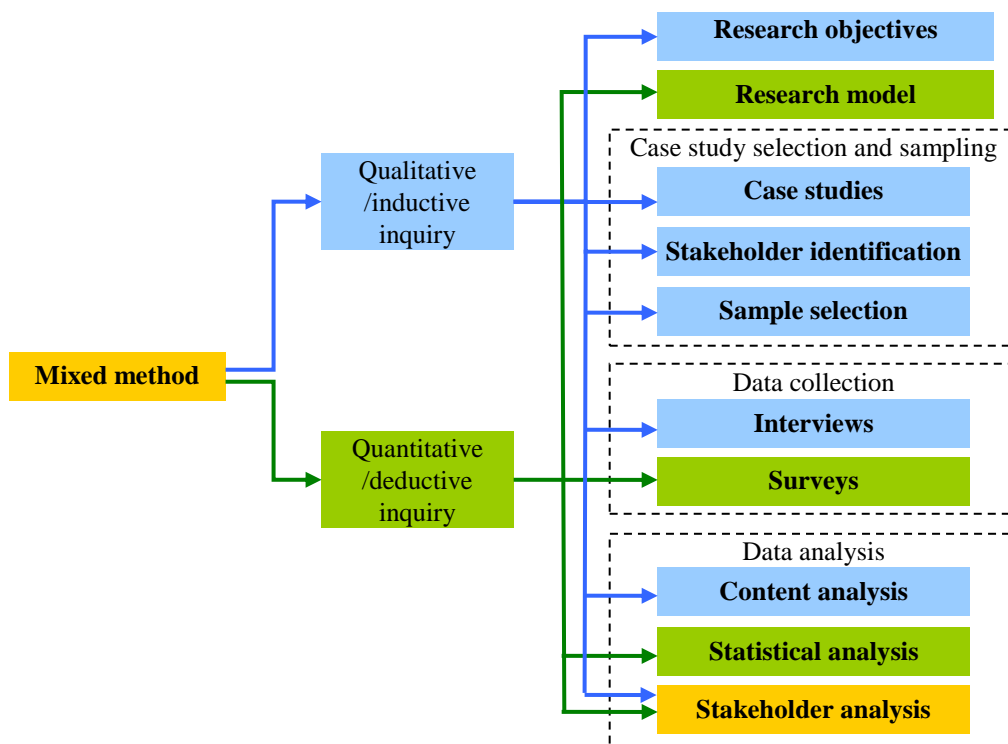


Figure 4.1 – The framework of the mixed-method adopted

4.2 Research model

In response to my research objectives, I extracted potential factors that may influence sense of place from past research. These were then categorised and illustrated in a conceptual model (Figure 4.2). This model also addressed my research objectives, and explains the potential links among the variables of relevance to my research.

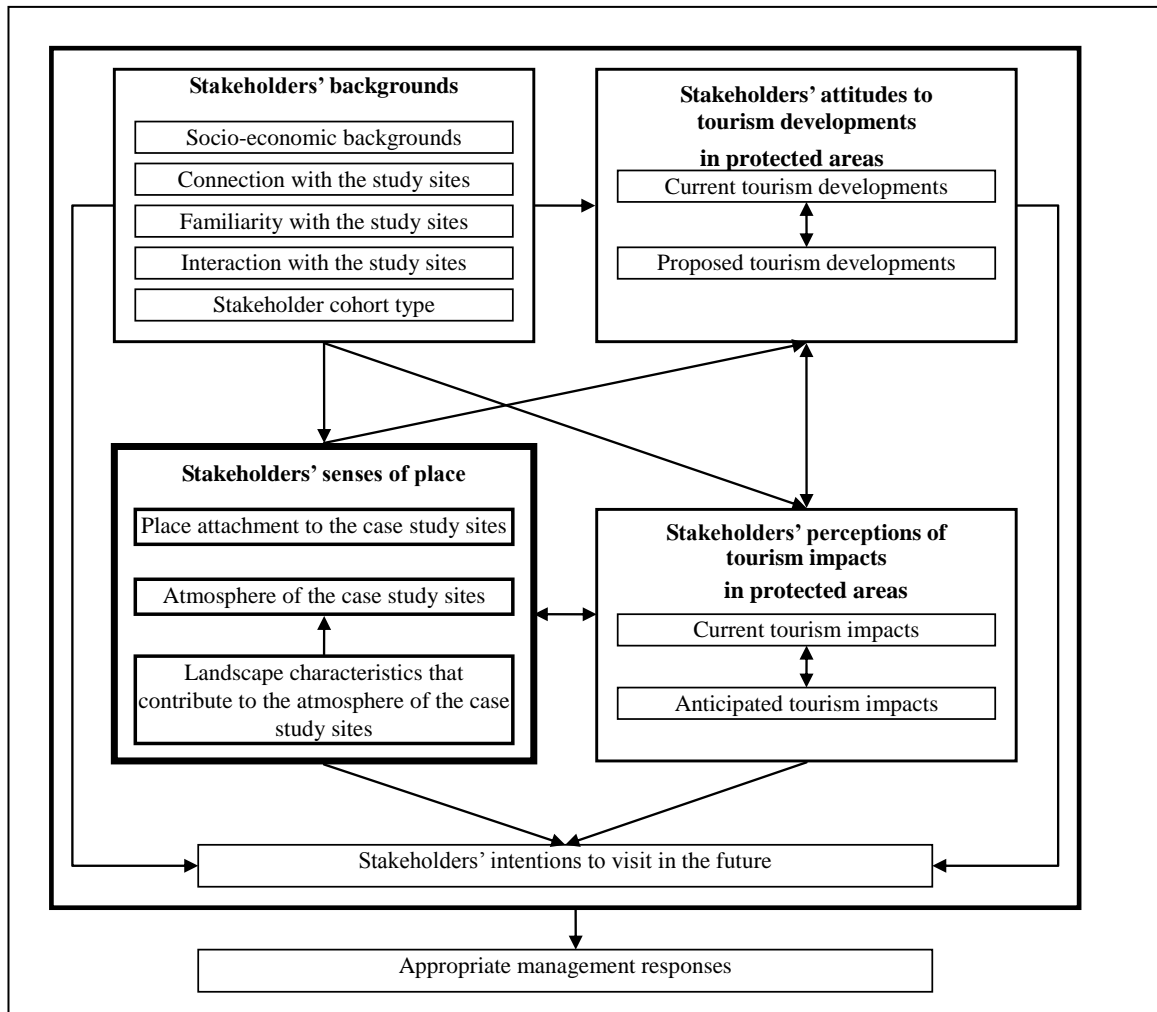


Figure 4.2 – Research model adopted for the thesis

The literature has shown that sense of place can be influenced by attitudes to tourism (Section 3.3) and landscape characteristics (Section 3.1.1). People's backgrounds in terms of socio-economic backgrounds were also identified as closely associated with sense of place. Different and recreational behaviours, personal involvement, experiences, and backgrounds can lead to the different values people show and thus influence how places are interpreted and understood (Fishwick & Vining 1992; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Johnston 1992; Moore & Graefe 1994; Riley 1992; Russell & Snodgrass 1987). For instance, Morgan (2010) proposed a developmental model of the process by which place attachment emerged from a childhood place experience. Knowledge and beliefs in reference to a place (Proshansky et al. 1983) or intimate knowledge of a place (Dixon & Durrheim 2000) all have an impact on perceptions. For instance, wilderness attachment may be stronger for those respondents who belonged to wilderness, conservation, or

outdoor organisations (Williams et al. 1992). Rogan et al. (2005) found involvement in conservation activities can foster feelings of satisfaction. Socio-economic background is another factor that can influence sense of place. However, there are conflicting results regarding the influence of socio-economic background on sense of place. Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) found women showed greater place attachment than men, but Ng et al. (2005) found that gender was not related to place belonging. Age is another factor that had an impact on the level of place attachment in some studies (Hay 1998; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Moore & Graefe 1994; Ng et al. 2005) whereas Williams et al. (1992) found that age was unrelated to place attachment and wilderness attachment. Social-economic status has been identified as having negative influence on neighbourhood attachment (Bonaiuto et al. 1999) or place attachment (Williams et al. 1992). On the other hand, Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) found no correlation between place attachment and income level. The aforementioned variables in the literature were categorised as “socio-economic backgrounds” (see Figure 4.2).

Some researchers have shown that both familiarity with a place and previous visits to that place were associated with attachment (Shamai 1991; Williams et al. 1992) or had a positive effect on place attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Scott 2003). However, a study of place meanings in a national forest suggested that people can consider places they have never visited as important (Gunderson & Watson 2007). Familiarity with a place is also associated with temporal factors. Fried (2000), Hay (1998) and Tuan (1977) believed that temporal factors are influential in the way people perceive a place. This is supported by empirical studies. For example, greater attachment to an environment is shown by long-term residents (Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Brown et al. 2003; Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; McCool & Martin 1994; Williams et al. 1995b), people with more previous visits (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Graefe 1994; Moore & Scott 2003; Shamai 1991; Williams et al. 1992), and more years of visitation (Moore & Graefe 1994; Stokols 1981; Williams et al. 1992). The above mentioned variables were classified as “familiarity with the study sites” under stakeholder backgrounds (see Figure 4.2).

Many aspects of people’s lives can affect their connections to a place. For example, Hay (1998) considered residential status as a determinant of sense of place while Brown et al. (2003) found higher place attachment among home owners. Length of residence was another factor that influences how people sense a place (Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Brown

et al. 2003; Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; McCool & Martin 1994; Williams et al. 1995b). The ease with which people can access the place (Gunderson & Watson 2007) and the proximity of a place to outdoor recreation destinations (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Budruk et al. 2011; Moore & Graefe 1994) were also found to be correlated with place attachment, place dependence or place identity. On the other hand, findings from the study of the community values and attitudes towards land use in Perth, Western Australia challenge the assumption that sense of place is dependant to some extent on proximity to the location (Tapsuwan et al. 2011). Um and Crompton (1987) defined attachment level to the community in terms of residence and birthplace, but concluded that the two variables were not appropriate measures of community attachment. Nonetheless, they may be useful predictors of place attachment in natural areas. The various variables discussed in this paragraph were categorised as “connections with the study sites” in my research model (see Figure 4.2).

The ways that people interact with a place is another important variable. Canter (1977, p.163) claimed that “individuals and groups whose environmental interactions differ will form different assessments of the places they experience”. The interactions can be social relations with others, which have been identified as important to sense of place (Section 3.1.2). Recreational behaviour is another possible factor. For instance, Fuhrer et al. (1993) found aspects of place attachment for home and near-home territory included social contacts in, personal intentions about, behaviours within, and opinions about home and surrounding areas. Proshansky et al. (1983) believed the behaviours and actions in reference to a place can have an impact on place attachment. Williams et al. (1992) found that place attachment was stronger among weekday visitors; visitors who stayed more than two nights and who travelled alone showed stronger place attachment and wilderness attachment. Another example is purpose of visitation. Kyle et al. (2004b) and Warzecha and Lime (2001) found level of place attachment was related to people’s motives for visitation. Place-focused visitors had higher place attachment than activity-focused and socio-focused respondents (Williams et al. 1992). Activities undertaken during visitation are another example. Research has shown that the formulation of place attachments is influenced by involvement in recreation activities (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Eisenhauer et al. 2000; Kyle et al. 2003b; Mowen et al. 1998; Moore & Graefe 1994). Greater attachments were associated with horseback

riders (Mowen et al. 1998), rafters with high levels of activity commitment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000), and people who participated in hunting (Williams et al. 1992).

Wilderness attachment was stronger among those who participated in nature study, while general place attachment was stronger among hikers than among non-hikers (Williams et al. 1992). The aforesaid variables in the literature were labelled as “interactions with the study sites” under stakeholder backgrounds (Figure 4.2).

The potential links among the variables in this model will be tested (see Section 4.4). The results will be outlined in Chapters 6 and 7. The way the results can be used to address my research objectives will be discussed in Chapter 8.

4.3 Data collection methods

In the first of the following sections, the case-study approach is introduced, along with the criteria and process that I used to select the protected areas for my research. In the second section, key stakeholders are identified and a list of individual stakeholders is developed as a sampling framework for data collection. The development and administration of the interviews and surveys are described in the third section. The techniques used to ensure the quality of data collection are explained.

4.3.1 Selecting case studies

The case study approach focuses on one or a small number of instances of a particular phenomenon, with a view to answering specific research questions and providing an in-depth account of events, relationships, experiences or processes occurring in those particular instances (Denscombe 1998). Each case is in some respects unique, but also belongs to a broader class, and the extent to which generalisations can be drawn depends on how far the case study example is similar to others of the same type (Denscombe 1998). Therefore, a case can be informative about a general phenomenon in a way that is broadly applicable beyond the specific site, population, time, and circumstances studied (Mabry 2008). When reporting case study findings, sufficient detail about how the case compares with others in the class should be given so that the reader can make an informed judgement about the extent the findings have relevance to other instances (Denscombe 1998). A case study can thus expand and generalise theories (analytic generalisation), but does not enumerate frequencies (statistical generalisation) (Yin 2003).

The decision to adopt case studies was based on their ability to allow me to use multiple sources and multiple methods to explore relationships, processes, and natural settings (Denscombe 1998). The focus of case studies on contemporary phenomena within real-life contexts (Yin 2003) was another reason. The phenomenon of interest for this research is whether existing tourism developments and impacts as well as proposed tourism developments in a protected area can influence sense of place for the area. Consideration is also given to places where residents reside within or next to a protected area creating a potential for conflict among different stakeholders. Convenience and accessibility dictated that the case study sites should be within Tasmania. Of the numerous protected areas in Tasmania, only two readily satisfied all the descriptions: Recherche Bay and the Tasman National Park. Both sites were subject to significant proposed tourism developments. Both areas have nationally and internationally significant landscapes, natural and social values, and the Recherche Bay also has internationally significant heritage values. Both have well-defined local communities and are used for recreation by local people, by people from across Tasmania, as well as elsewhere in Australia and internationally. Neither site has been the subject of previous social research of this kind. The suite of place-based values means that both sites attract a significant number and diversity of stakeholders. The characteristics of these two study areas are elaborated in Chapter 5.

4.3.2 Stakeholder identification

Stakeholders are actors with a vested interest in a policy, decision or action and those whose interests should be taken into account when developing and implementing a policy or program (Schmeer 2000). Stakeholders can be almost everyone including any group of people at any level or position in the society who have some interest in a particular issue or system (Grimble & Wellard 1997; Mitchell et al. 1997) or anyone who may be or believe that they may be impacted by an issue or decision (Bayley & French 2008). Mitchell et al. (1997) argued that even the natural environment is one of the stakeholders, albeit one that requires humans to represent its interests – this role is typically taken by conservation NGOs.

Exploratory work was done to establish a preliminary understanding of potential stakeholders for my two study sites. This work involved consulting key informants from the Tasmanian Government and non-government organisations. Relevant information was also collected by reading newspaper articles, submissions to government, tourism brochures, and websites. The resulting list of stakeholder groups is given in Table 4-1. Stakeholders were categorised into five broad groups: local and recreational interests; local businesses; a non-government management organisation; government management agencies; and non-government environmental organisations. This categorisation was based on stakeholder experiences, characteristics, and circumstances associated with my study sites. This list is used as a sampling framework in Sections 4.3.3 and 4.3.4.

Table 4-1 – The list of key stakeholders in case study sites

Category	Stakeholders	Target stakeholders	Case Studies	
			Recherche Bay	Tasman National Park
Local and recreational interests	Local residents	People who live on Tasman Peninsula	Residents and landowners in & around the area	✓
			Tasman Residents & Ratepayers Association Inc	✓
		People who have shacks in Recherche Bay People who live in Far South area (Recherche Bay region)	✓	
			✓	
	Visitors and recreation groups	People who go bushwalking	Visitors	✓
			Hobart Walking Club	✓
		People who go camping	✓	✓
			✓	✓
		People who go fishing/swimming/boating/diving	Visitors	✓
			The Royal Yacht Club of Tasmania	✓
			Yachting Australia—Yachting Tasmania	✓
			Peninsula Aquatic Club Inc	✓
			Kettering Yacht Club	✓
			Carnarvon Bay Jetty Association Inc	✓
			Taranna Boat Association Inc	✓
		Other recreation activities	Tasman Golf Club Incorporated	✓
			4 wheel driving	✓
			Tasman Horse Riders Club Inc	✓
Local businesses	Forestry	Logging industry	✓	
	Tourism operator	Ida Bay Railway; Lunaris Gemstones	✓	
		Hastings Caves & Thermal Springs	✓	
		Tasmanian Devil Conservation Park		✓
		Come Dive; Eaglehawk Dive Centre		✓
		Go Dive Eaglehawk Neck & Dover		✓
		Personalised Sea Charters; Tasman Island Cruises		✓
		Adventure Tours Australia	✓	✓
		Navigators Rivers, Bays, Channels, Oceans	✓	✓
		Sea Life		✓
		Hobart Cruises	✓	
		Holiday Island Charters	✓	
		Staged Development	✓	
		TASafari		✓
	Fishery	South East Shellfish Growers Association Inc		✓
		Tasmanian Amateur Sea Fishermens Association Inc		✓
		Seaeagle Fishing; Norfol Bay Gourmet Seafoods		✓
		Okorp Pty Ltd; Osprey Seafoods Pty Ltd	✓	
		Van Dieman Seafoods Pty Ltd	✓	
	General Service	Dover Grocer and Newsagency; IGA Dover Festival Supermarket	✓	
		Dover Pharmacy; Gingerbreadhouse Bakery Cafe	✓	
		Dover Woodfire Pizza, Sweet Dreams Coffee Shop	✓	

Table 4-1 (Continued) – The list of key stakeholders in case study sites

Category	Stakeholders	Target stakeholders	Case Studies	
			Recherche Bay	Tasman National Park
Local business	Hospitality industry	Far South Wilderness Lodge & Backpackers	✓	
		D'Entrecasteaux Eco Lodge	✓	
		Huon Charm Waterfront Cottage	✓	
		Dover Beachside Tourist Park	✓	
		Dover Hotel	✓	
		Dover Bayside Lodge	✓	
		Anne's Old Rectory	✓	
		Smuggler's Rest	✓	
		Driftwood Holiday Cottages	✓	
		Riseley Cottage	✓	
		Southport Tavern	✓	
		Southport Holiday Units	✓	
		Jetty House	✓	
		Southern Forest B&B	✓	
		Lune River B&B Cottage	✓	
		Southport Settlement	✓	
		Settlement Farm Cottage	✓	
		Summertime Cottage	✓	
		Abs by the Bay		✓
		Andertons		✓
		Bay View Shack		✓
		Beachbreaks Marion Bay		✓
		Brick Point Cottage		✓
		Burilda Waters		✓
		Cascades		✓
		Comfort Inn		✓
		Denis		✓
		Dunalley Hotel		✓
		Eaglehawk Café & Guesthouse		✓
		Eaglehawk Hideaway B&B		✓
		Eaglehawk Neck Beach House		✓
		Four Seasons Holiday Cottages		✓
		Kiah Nunyara Accommodation		✓
		Lufra Hotel		✓
		Mason's Cottages		✓
		Norfolk Bay Convict Station		✓
		Norfolk Bayview Bed & Breakfast		✓
		Palmer's Lookout Holidays Accommodation		✓
		Parkers Holiday Cottages		✓
		Parsons Bay Lodge		✓
		Penzance's Pirates Bay Motel		✓
		Port Arthur Caravan & Cabin Park		✓
		Port Arthur Holiday World		✓
		Port Arthur Motor Inn		✓
		Port Arthur Villas		✓
		Potters Croft		✓
		Roseview Youth Hostel		✓
		Saltwater River Convict Beach House		✓
		Sea Change Safety Cove		✓
		Seaview Lodge		✓
		Sommers Bay Beach House		✓
		Sunset Beach Cabins		✓
		Taranna Tavern		✓
		Taylor's Restaurant		✓
		Teraki Cottages		✓
		The Fox & Hounds Inn		✓
		WedgeSide		✓
		White Beach Caravan & Cabin Park		✓
		White Beach Cottage		✓
		White Beach Holiday Village		✓
Non-government management organisation	Tasmanian Land Conservancy		✓	

Table 4-1 (Continued) – The list of key stakeholders in case study sites

Category	Stakeholders	Target stakeholders	Case Studies	
			Recherche Bay	Tasman National Park
Tasmanian Government management agencies	Department of Tourism, Arts and Environment (DTAE)	Aboriginal Heritage Office	✓	✓
		Arts Tasmania	✓	✓
		Environment	✓	✓
		Heritage Tasmania	✓	✓
		Parks and Wildlife Service (Managers, planners, rangers & volunteers)	✓	✓
		Tourism Tasmania	✓	✓
		National Parks and Wildlife Advisory Council	✓	✓
	Port Arthur Historic Site	Management Authority (PAHSMA)		✓
	Huon Valley Council	Planning and Development	✓	
		Tourism		
		Natural Resource Management	✓	
	Tasman Council	Planning and Environmental Services		✓
		Natural Resource Management		✓
	Forestry Tasmania	Huon Forest District	✓	
		Derwent District		✓
	Department of Primary Industries, Parks, Water and Environment	Facilities Management/Corporate Services	✓	✓
Non-government organisations (NGOs)	NGOs (environmental issues)	Sustainable Living Tasmania (Tasmanian Environment Centre Inc.)	✓	✓
		Peninsula Environmental Network		✓
		Environment Tasmania Inc.	✓	✓
		Wilderness Society (Tasmania)	✓	✓
		Tasmanian Conservation Trust	✓	✓
		Tasmanian Trails Association Inc	✓	✓
		Tasmanian National Park Association	✓	✓
		Southern Coastcare Association of Tasmania Inc (SCAT)	✓	✓
		Eaglehawk Neck Coastcare Group		✓
		Stewarts Bay Coastcare Group		✓
		Tasman Peninsula Historical Society Inc		✓
		Recherche Bay Protection Group	✓	
		French Connection	✓	
		Living Boat Trust	✓	

4.3.3 Interviews

Interviewing is a data-gathering method where there is a spoken exchange of information that requires some form of direct personal access (Dunn 2005). The method allows researchers to enter into the other person's perspectives and to access information that cannot be observed directly (Patton 2002). The assumption is that people's own words tell us a great deal about their experiences and attitudes (Winchester 2005). Interviewing also allows people to be visually observed and for interpretations, perceptions, meanings, and understandings to be recorded as primary data sources (Mason 2002). This is crucial for my research in order to explore individual perceptions of the case study environments and the attached meanings. Face-to-face interviews are a flexible form of data collection method. They allow interviewers to structure the situation, to motivate respondents, to use visual communication, and to provide additional instructions or explanations (Leeuw 2008). Semi-structured interviewing has some degree of predetermined order and questions are deployed to assist the interviewer's memory so that that all issues are covered.

My study adopted purposeful sampling to approach the potential interview participants. Qualitative research usually involves some form of selection process because of the impracticality of undertaking in depth of research with every potential participant (Mason 2002). Purposeful sampling aims to strategically and meaningfully encapsulate a relevant range of interviewees in relation to the participant population, without attempting to provide a strictly representative sample (Mason 2002). The logic and power of the method lie in selecting information-rich cases with experiences and ideas relevant to the phenomena under investigation (Patton 2002). The purposeful sampling method is used wherein sample selection for participants is made according to some known common characteristics (McGuirk & O'Neil 2005). The known characteristics of my potential participants are their stakeholder category. Decisions about the selection of participants depend on their relevance to my research objectives, my analytical framework, and the argument that I want to develop. The ability to gain access is also important. Potential participants were chosen in this way from each of the five categories of stakeholders listed in Section 4.3.2.

During the selection procedure, a broad range of stakeholders was considered so that as much information as possible relevant to the research questions could be gathered. The sample size was limited by practical constraints. My decisions were based on a compromise with resource constraints including time and money. The number of participants was not intended to represent each category. The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases chosen and the analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size (Patton 2002). Decisions about the exact number of participants for each stakeholder group were not made in advance, but during the investigation. Sampling was terminated when the sample was comprised of at least one interviewee from each stakeholder cohort type. The sample size was also determined by practical limits of time, availability of the interviewees and human resources to conduct interviews.

Face-to-face semi-structured conversations with an interview schedule were adopted. The schedule was a list of fully worded questions that I wanted to cover. Questions were formulated according to the research objectives identified in Chapter 1. The questions were cross-referenced to ensure that each key concept was covered. The set of interview questions is given in Appendix 2. Terminologies such as sense of place or place

attachment were not used. Phrases such as place meanings were adopted during the interviews. Considerations were given to the terminological confusion identified in the literature and the understanding of the respondents' unfamiliarity with those terminologies. A range of predetermined phrases and sentences for asking these questions was kept as a backup to help me consistently articulate questions to participants. At the beginning of each interview, I gave a brief introduction to the research, followed by an information sheet (Appendix 3) explaining the purpose of the research. Participants were informed that they could discontinue their involvement at any time. Participants then signed a consent form agreeing to the interview arrangements. Confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed both orally by the interviewer and formally in the consent form. This is in accordance with ethics committee requirements. A map was also used to present my study area and its boundary as an introduction of the area to my interviewees. Some background information on the interviewees was sought at the beginning of each interview to aid my interpretation of their responses. The interview began with direct and non-controversial questions. As the discussion progressed, I decided on the sequence of each question based on the context of each interview and the relevance of each part of the interaction to the research questions. Not every question was deployed and questions were asked at whatever stage of the interview seemed appropriate. The wording of the questions was flexible, giving consideration to the flow of proceedings.

In order to conduct the interview in an ethical way, special attention was paid to the style of questioning such as what questions to ask and their wording. This can reduce stress and concern aroused by the presence of an interviewer. Interviewees' right not to answer particular questions was respected. In addition, to avoid unwanted interviewer effects (Leeuw 2008), it was important to maintain a neutral attitude. To reduce interviewer-induced bias, I told the each subject at the beginning that my intention was to understand different opinions on issues, so there were no right or wrong answers. To enhance the credibility of data collection, I adopted participant checking whereby the transcriptions were sent to each interviewee for vetting or authorising. However, visitors who were interviewed on site were not available as their contact addresses were not requested.

The interviews were conducted from March 2008 to March 2009 that included summer holidays season and the Easter holiday periods. This resulted in thirty-nine interviews – twenty-three for Recherche Bay and sixteen for Tasman National Park (Table 4-2).

Various methods were employed to approach different stakeholders groups. ‘People with special interests’ and ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ were contacted by email or telephone calls to arrange a time and place. Other stakeholders were approached on site for an interview. These stakeholders can be divided into “non-business locals”, “local business” people and “non-local visitors” based on their residence and employment. The interviewees were not representative of individual stakeholder group.

Interviews ranged from ten to one hundred minutes and, with the consent of the interviewees, were recorded by digital audio recorder. This allowed me as the interviewer to concentrate on the conversation and to have more time to organise the questions, as I was not preoccupied with taking notes. The anonymity of the interviewees and the security of the records were emphasised at the outset, to reduce the chance of inhibited responses.

Table 4-2 –Stakeholder groups and in-depth interview participant numbers

		<i>Recherche Bay (n=23)</i>		<i>Tasman National Park (n=15)</i>	
<i>Variables</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Local business		3	13.0	5	33.3
Non-business locals	Resident	1	4.3	1	6.7
	Shack owner	7	30.4	0	0.0
Non-local visitor		6	26.4	6	40.0
People with special interests		4	17.4	1	6.7
Tasmanian Government staff		2	8.7	2	13.3

4.3.4 Surveys

Surveys using questionnaires can study population distributions of attitudes, opinions, and behaviours, and can be used to form and test hypotheses about the relationships between such variables (Brewer & Hunter 1989). Questionnaires have the strength of being flexible and cost-effective for studying large populations and may provide interpretive insights (McGuirk & O’Neil 2005). A questionnaire with both open-ended and closed questions was adopted. The latter were constructed *a priori* with a range of possible answers. The major benefit of closed questions is that their responses are easily coded and analysed. This is especially important for my study, which employs a long questionnaire and a large number of respondents. To allow for some flexibility in response items, the item ‘other (please specify)’ was included for many of the questions. Open-ended questions were also included. Respondents could offer responses outside the range of the closed alternatives, so a more valid picture of their views could be obtained (Schuman & Presser 1981, p.81). This is especially important for exploring a complex concept like sense of place.

The questionnaire design was based on the research model established in Section 4.2. The questionnaire was divided into six sections in response to the variables in the research model. In each section, questions were grouped in a general way from most to least salient, as question salience is a major influence on response rates (Dillman 2007). The questions were proposed, reviewed, and edited by four researchers, including two supervisors, another PhD student and myself. Given the limited timeline of my research, the survey was not trialled. The details of each section are described as follows. Copies of the questionnaires for the two study areas are in Appendix 4.

In survey Sections 1, 2 and the first part of 3, mixed measurements were adopted to explore sense of place (see Section 4.4.4 for details). The questions in Sections 3, 4, and 6 emphasised recreation use characteristics and background characteristics of respondents, and comprised five parts: *socio-economic background, connection with the place, familiarity with the place, interaction with the place and interests in the place*. *Connection with the place* items addressed property ownership in the place, length of property ownership, birthplace, residence, and place where respondents had lived the longest. *Familiarity with the place* was assessed by asking awareness of the place, visitation, total frequency of visitation, total length of visitation, and frequency of visitation in the past year. *Interactions with the place* were identified by asking about activities undertaken during visit/s, purpose of visit/s, number of companions, time of visit/s, and duration of each visit. The responses to the questions in section 3 were based on my observations during the field trips and supported by the interviews.

Section 5 addressed attitudes to tourism developments and perceptions of tourism impacts in the study sites (Table 4-3). Attitudes to tourism developments were also identified by asking respondents to designate places which they consider suitable for such developments and places from which such developments should be excluded. Respondents were asked to stick dots on a map enclosed with the questionnaire to show up to six places where development would be acceptable, as well as another six places which should not have development.

Table 4-3 –Close-ended survey questions-Section 5

Attitudes	Current tourism developments	How would you describe the current level of tourism development in the place?
	Potential tourism expansions	What kind of new tourism operation, if any, do you think is appropriate in the Bay/on private land near to the Park?
	Proposed new tourism operations	Are you for or against the eco-lodge in the Bay/the Three Capes Track proposal in the Park? (For details of these developments, see Section 5.2.4 and 5.3.4).
Perceptions	Current tourism impacts	Over the time you have visited the place, have you noticed any change? Have these changes influenced the atmosphere of the place Have these changes made the Bay/the Park a less desirable place to visit, more desirable place to visit or about the same?
	Potential tourism impacts	Do you think the eco-lodge proposal/ Three Capes Track proposal would change the atmosphere of the place?
Future visitation plans		What do you plan to do in the future?

Multiple methods are suggested as being necessary to effectively explore sense of place (Section 3.2). Any single scale may not be sufficient to express a multi-faceted sense of place. The use of multiple measurements is also consistent with my definition of sense of place as an overarching concept that subsumes the relevant terms articulating people-place relationships (Section 3.5). The first method I deployed was a scale with fourteen statements for revealing the social perspective of sense of place. These items were taken from several Type Three studies by other researchers that have shown good internal consistency (Section 3.2). My adaptation of these studies was based on their discovery of a nuanced variation in sense of place and their emphasis on outdoor recreational settings. My scale contained four items for each of the concepts associated with sense of place: place attachment, place identity, and place dependence (see Table 4-4 for item descriptions). Two items were also chosen to respond to the social perspective of sense of place that addresses the human relations and interactions among individuals. The process of generating the items was to formulate an item pool from Type Three studies. These items were then reviewed and modified to suit the conditions of my study sites and interspersed in a random order. Items were presented in a five-point format from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5) with a neutral point “neither disagree not agree” (3) (Likert 1932). A “not sure” alternative was available to account for uncertain responses that might otherwise reduce the reliability and validity of measurement (Schuman & Presser 1981).

Table 4-4 – Items of my place attachment scale

<i>Item label</i>	<i>Item description</i>
Place attachment	A1 I am very attached to Recherche Bay (RB)/Tasman National Park (TNP).
	A2 I enjoy visiting RB/TNP more than other places.
	A3 I have little, if any, emotional attachment to RB/TNP.
	A4 I feel a strong sense of belonging to RB/TNP.
Place identity	I1 I identify strongly with RB/TNP.
	I2 I feel RB/TNP is a part of me.
	I3 Visiting RB/TNP says a lot about who I am.
	I4 RB/TNP means a lot to me.
Place dependence	D1 For the recreation activities that I enjoy most, RB/TNP is the best place.
	D2 For what I like to do, I could not imagine anything better than RB/TNP.
	D3 I prefer RB/TNP over other places for the recreational activities that I enjoy.
	D4 Many of my friends / family prefer RB/TNP over other sites.
Social place	S1 My friends /family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places.
	S2 If I were to stop visiting RB/TNP, I would lose contact with a number of friends.

A further method deployed was a spatial identification of place-based meanings using a map on which respondents were asked to designate their special places. People were asked to stick dots on an enclosed map to show up to six places that are special to them. This method was based on that used by Brown (2005, 2006). This method can systematically integrate local values and perceptions with biophysical landscape information (Brown & Raymond 2007; Raymond & Brown 2006). Another advantage is its ability to specify place-based meanings for specific locations within the study areas.

The questionnaire was implemented as a self-administered survey. This decision was made considering the large number of potential respondents, the length and complexity of the questionnaire, and the sensitive issues being addressed. This approach also places less time pressure on people, allowing them to comprehend and complete the questions at their own pace. Self-administered surveys need to be totally self-explanatory, and are constrained by questionnaire length and turn-around time (Leeuw 2008). Although the response rates can be reduced because potential respondents can see the questions before deciding whether to proceed, evidence shows a strong preference by respondents for self-administered formats (Dillman 2007).

The survey package included a cover letter, a questionnaire booklet (Appendices 4 and 5), and a return (post paid) envelope. In order to obtain responses from as wide range of stakeholders as possible, my field work was conducted for more than a year (December 2007 to March 2009). Given the diversity of stakeholders, a variety of means were used to approach the potential respondents identified in Section 4.3.2. Survey packages were mailed or handed by the researcher to potential respondents as well as distributed by other agents. For local communities, the packages were mailed to willing businesses. Local environmental groups were approached by email to inquire if they were willing

to mail the survey packages to their members. I also approached people in community shopping centres and called at holiday houses asking if people were willing to participate in my research. For owners who were absent, the survey package was left by their front door.

The environmental organisations and the Tasmanian Government management agencies responsible for the two study sites were approached by email or phone calls, asking if they were willing to send the survey packages to their members and staff. Management agencies involved included Forestry Tasmania, TPWS, Port Arthur Historic Site Management Authority, and the Tasmanian Land Conservancy. Other organisations were Hobart Walking Club, Peninsula Environmental Network, Tasmanian Conservation Trust, and Tasmanian National Parks Association. The number of the survey packages sent to varied and was based on the number of members or staff.

For non-local visitors, fieldwork was conducted during week days and weekends across all four seasons, as well as on Christmas, New Year, Easter and school holidays, from December 2007 to March 2009. This strategy enabled responses spread across different visitors. Two stages of fieldwork were involved. This decision was made due to the time frame of my research and the importance of capturing views from visitors who visited the study areas at different times. Stage one was from Christmas 2007 to June 2008 before the questionnaire was ready. I went to the main camping ground in each study area and asked if people were willing to participate. Their names and addresses were then recorded. I also left a brochure with a reply paid envelope on visitors' cars in the parking lots for potential participants to volunteer to give their names and addresses. In June 2008 when the questionnaires were ready, survey packages were sent to these potential participants. A thankyou and reminder postcard was sent two weeks after the mailout. This expressed gratitude for those who had already responded and urged those who had not to please do so as soon as possible. Four weeks after mailout, a replacement questionnaire was sent to non-respondents, urging completion and mail back. Stage two of the field work was undertaken from July 2008 to March 2009. I visited the campsites and asked if people were willing to participate. With their consent, I then gave them the survey package and respondents were asked to send it back after completion. I also left a survey package on visitors' cars in every parking lot within my study sites for potential participants to volunteer their responses.

4.4 *Analytical methods*

This section begins by outlining the results of content analysis of the interviews. Various statistical techniques used for questionnaire analysis are then outlined.

4.4.1 Analysis of interviews

There are different ways of sorting and organising qualitative data. For analysing the interviews, content analysis - an exploratory and inductive coding method - was adopted. The first step was to produce a transcript of each interview. This provides a preliminary form of analysis and the opportunity to engage the data (Dunn 2005). The transcripts were then broken into relevant, distinct words, phrases, and sentences. The goal was for each component to represent a singular reason for why a person valued a place. Phrases were not broken up if doing so changed the meaning.

The next step was to interpret the data and to provide explanations. This requires an analysis and search for themes and categories. Categories were then inductively generated on the basis of their capture of the diverse meanings of responses. A coding guide was developed by which each category was defined with several examples taken from the sample. Manifest or descriptive codes were employed to structure and reduce the data. All data were provisionally coded using this guide. This provided a systematic overview of the data and also enabled me to locate and retrieve issues, topics, information, and themes which did not appear in a sequential manner (Mason 2002). Then a coding structure was developed, whereby codes were grouped together depending on their similarities, substantive relationships, variations, and conceptual links (Cope 2005). The codes can reflect themes or patterns that are visible on the surface and stated directly (Cope 2005; Dunn 2005; Richards 2005). Patterns and themes were identified that cut across individual experiences. Statements that have meanings in response to my research objectives were identified. The whole procedure was interactive; with categories proposed and tested by attempting to code the data, modified in response to noted ambiguities, and retested. Approximately half the data were used to develop the coding scheme. All the themes will be outlined in Chapters 6 and 7.

A major challenge with analysing interview content is to ensure that I as the interpreter am doing it in meaningful and sensitive ways, rather than imposing my own

interpretation inappropriately or without justification (Mason 2002). This is particularly difficult because qualitative inquiry is all about how the data are interpreted and making sense of the themes and meanings in the context. To minimise bias and misinterpretation, the coding categories and allocation of text blocks to these codes were checked by my supervisory team. All the themes that emerged from my interview analysis were presented in Chapters 6 and 7.

4.4.2 Analysis of the questionnaires

Questionnaire responses were coded and initially entered into a spreadsheet. Before commencing, the data were scrutinised for outliers. Respondents who chose more than one answer to a single-choice question or did not answer at all were treated as missing values. The negatively worded item in the place attachment scale was reversed.

The data were then analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Various methods were deployed: descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and correlation analysis. First, the responses were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, and means to provide an overview of the variables. Factor analysis was then used to reduce the variables in the place attachment scale to a smaller number of underlying latent variables (factors). Factor analysis is a data reduction technique where a large set of variables is reduced to a smaller set without much loss of information (Dawis 1987). Then principle component analysis (PCA) was adopted: variables that are correlated with one another but largely independent of other subsets of variables were combined into factors. The number of factors and their interpretation were then decided. To interpret a factor, one attempts to understand the underlying dimension that unifies the group of variables loading on it (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). These defined factors underlie answers to individual questions and identify the pattern in the responses to a set of questions (DeVaus 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). For subsequent correlation analysis, factor scores were calculated by using SPSS. Factor scores are estimates of the scores subjects would have received on the factors had they been assessed directly (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007).

Lastly, correlation analysis was implemented to explore the relations among the variables and factors. Various methods were deployed. According to the nature of each variable, chi-square test, independent-samples t-test, and one-way between-groups

analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc tests were used to explore variables correlated with senses of place, attitudes to tourism developments, and perceptions of tourism impacts. Some variables were reclassified before applying these analyses. Five continuous variables were reclassified to three or four groups. *Total frequency of visitation* was reclassified in four groups (once; two to nineteen times; twenty to ninety-nine times; more than ninety-nine times). *Total length of visitation* was reclassified in three groups (ten years and less than ten years; more than ten years; less than twenty-five years; more than twenty-five years). *Number of companions* was reclassified in four groups (none; one person; two to four people; more than four people). *Length of property ownership* was reclassified in three groups (less than nine years; nine to twenty years; more than twenty years). *Age* was reclassified in five groups (18~30, 31~40, 41~50, 51~60, >60 years old). Five variables were then reclassified in order to have a greater number of subjects in each category and enable the analysis with other variables. *Frequency of visitation in the past one year* was reclassified in four groups (none; once; a few times; more than a few times). *Length of each visitation* was reclassified in three groups (one day or less; two to seven days; more than seven days). *The level of education completed* was reclassified in three groups (Secondary school and under; university; TAFE/Technical college). *Employment* was reclassified in two groups (recreation and tourism related, others). For Tasman National Park, *appropriate potential new tourism operation on private land near to the Park* was reclassified in four groups: nature-based lodge; camping (campground with designated campsites and dispersed camping with no or very limited facilities); no development; and other developments (major hotel, small hotel/motel, serviced apartment, bed and breakfast accommodation and caravan park). *Appropriate potential new tourism operation in the Bay* was reclassified in three groups: camping (as for the National Park); no development; and other development (major hotel, small hotel/motel, nature-based lodge, serviced apartment, bed and breakfast and caravan park). For some cases, *stakeholder cohort type* was reclassified in four groups (local community people; non-local visitors; members of environmental groups; and Tasmanian Government staff).

Chapter 5 The case study sites

This chapter gives details of my two study sites, the protected areas of Recherche Bay and Tasman National Park in Tasmania, Australia. The information in this chapter functions as background, but also is used in Chapter 8 to indicate how these two cases compare with others of this type so that an informed judgement can be made about the relevance of the findings in my study to similar issues in other places.

I firstly introduce the Tasmanian reserve system in order to assist in an understanding of management of my study sites. I then describe the locations and study boundaries of these sites. The significance of each protected area is then addressed, based on heritage, social, natural, and landscape values. General management objectives and the specific objectives associated with tourism developments are presented. Management objectives are essential to my study as they determine the official appropriateness of any new tourism development. An overview of the new tourism proposals for my two sites follows, leading to discussions of the issues created by these proposals.

5.1 *Tasmanian protected areas*

Protected areas in Tasmania include various types of public reserve, which are managed by either the Tasmania Parks and Wildlife Service (TPWS) or Forestry Tasmania; private reserves managed by NGOs such as the Tasmanian Land Conservancy or individual landholders; and Indigenous Protected Areas. The largest proportion of Tasmanian protected areas is managed by TPWS, whose mission is to “create and maintain a representative and world-renowned reserve system” and to “conserve the State’s natural and cultural heritage while providing for sustainable use and economic opportunities for the Tasmanian community” (TPWS 2011b). The TPWS manages 423 reserves including 19 national parks, covering 2,508,297 hectares, or about 36.83% of the area of the State (TPWS 2011a). Tasmanian protected areas play a significant role in reserving unique fauna and flora. The island geography of Tasmania has limited the introduction of predators such as the dingo and the dispersal of animals and plants generally, until the recent introduction of foxes which pose huge threats to wildlife. The lack of such predators has enabled many of the species now rare or extinct elsewhere in Australia to flourish in Tasmania. These include the Tasmanian devil, eastern quoll, and bettong (TPWS 2003b).

The TPWS manages areas established under the *Nature Conservation Act 2002* that set out the values and purposes of each reserve class, which are managed according to the *National Parks and Reserves Management Act 2002*. The areas recognised under these Acts are classified as National Park, State Reserve, Nature Reserve, Game Reserve, Conservation Area, Nature Recreation Area, Regional Reserve and Historic Site. TPWS also manages two World Heritage Areas – the Tasmanian Wilderness World Heritage Area (TWWHA) and the Macquarie Island World Heritage Area - which overlay various of these Tasmanian reserve categories. In addition to state legislation, the requirements for managing these Tasmanian reserves and WHAs are influenced by national policies and legislation, as well as international conventions.

At the national level, the creation and management of public protected areas is primarily the responsibility of state governments. However, under the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* (EPBC) Act the Australian Government can also establish protected areas in Australian Territories (such as Christmas Island, Heard Island and so on), as well as marine areas. Partnerships and co-management with Aboriginal communities have also been instituted in recent years, leading to the establishment of Indigenous Protected Areas, which are managed by traditional owners with the support of the Australian Government (Griffin & Craig 2010). These various state, territory and national reserves form the National Reserve System (NRS). A key aim of the NRS is to establish a comprehensive, representative and adequate reserve system in Australia, comprising public, private and Indigenous managed lands and seas (National Reserve System Task Group 2009).

At the international level, the WHA are sites of global significance established according to the World Heritage Convention. This is a convention of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation for protecting global cultural and natural heritage, to which Australia became a state party in 1974. The World Heritage Committee assesses sites for World Heritage listing, but has no ownership or management of listed properties. Thus, the sovereignty of the TWWHA, for example, remains with Australia while the Convention provides the framework for the conservation of such natural and cultural areas of outstanding universal value. The TPWS has prepared management plans for TWWHA and Macquarie Island, which apply for 10 year periods, with a limited review after five years.

5.2 Case study - Recherche Bay

This section begins with the location and study boundary of Recherche Bay. The significance of the site is explained. The management objectives relevant to my research are outlined. Details of the proposed tourism development in the area are given, and associated issues introduced.

5.2.1 Location and study boundary

Recherche Bay is located on the extreme south-eastern corner of Tasmania, Australia, approximately 130 km south-west of Hobart. My study area embraces the land visible from the coastline of Recherche Bay (Figure 5.1). It includes:

1. part of the Southwest National Park (IUCN II/Ib);
2. the entirety of the Recherche Bay State Recreation Area (IUCN V);
3. part of the Southport Lagoon Conservation Area (IUCN VI);
4. the D'Entrecaseaux Watering Hole Historic Site and the D'Entrecaseaux Monument;
5. the Tasmanian Land Conservancy (TLC) Recherche Bay Reserve;
6. sections of State Forest managed by Forestry Tasmania;
7. unallocated Crown Land;
8. private lands; and
9. the marine environment of Recherche Bay.

The western part of the study area is part of the TWWHA, which overlays the Southwest National Park, as well as range of other reserves outside of my study area.



Figure 5.1 - Study boundary of Recherche Bay

5.2.2 Significance

This section describes the values associated with Aboriginal heritage, historic activities, and natural and landscape values in the Bay. Social value in terms of popular opinions and shared community perceptions in current society is outlined.

Heritage value

The Bay is unique and exceptional for its Aboriginal and historical uses. Aboriginals have lived in Tasmania about 40,000 years and the coastal area from Southport Lagoon to Recherche Bay was seasonally inhabited by the Lyluequonny band of the South Eastern Tribe (Australian Heritage Database 2011b). The site also bears a rich layer of historic activities since European settlement in Australia, with nineteen European heritage features mapped at the Bay (Kitchell 2007). This is the place where the first white woman set foot in Tasmania and the island's first European burial occurred, and where the last full-blood Aboriginal in Tasmania was born (Huon Valley Council 2007).

The northeast peninsula in the TLC Recherche Bay Reserve (AHD 2005b) and Recherche Bay and Surrounds (AHD 2011 b) are listed as National Heritage for their unique values. The National Heritage List is designed to recognise and protect places of outstanding heritage to the nation. The Reserve meets four of the nine National Heritage List criteria. For Criterion A (Events, Processes), the site was a landing place of the 1792 French Bruni d'Entrecasteaux expedition, which aimed to find the missing explorer Jean Francois de Galaup de La Perouse who disappeared in 1788. The expedition set sail in two frigates, the *Esperance* and the *Recherche*, returning in 1793, and the first and friendly meetings between the French and local Aboriginal Lyluequonny tribe occurred on the northeast peninsula. Criterion C (Research) shows the association with the French scientific achievements. Their records of contact with the Indigenous inhabitants are important in understanding Tasmanian Aboriginal society prior to European settlement. Archaeological research value resides in the French garden built as a gift from the French people to the natives of the new land and an observatory site. The French scientific achievements in geomagnetic measurement at the Bay satisfy Criterion F (Creative or technical achievement). That geomagnetism varied with latitude was proven there, and constituted the first European scientific experiment undertaken on Australian soil. Members of the 1792 and 1793 French expedition are significant people, thus meeting Criterion H: Elisabeth Paul Edouard

de Rossel (geoscientist) and Jacques Julien Houtou de Labillardiere (botanist, whose work here resulted in the first publication of general flora of Australia, 1804-06).

Social value

The Bay also encompasses social value, defined under National Heritage Criterion G of “outstanding heritage value to the nation because of the place’s strong or special association with a particular community or cultural group for social, cultural or spiritual reasons” (AHD 2005b). Social value arises from shared community perceptions based on a continuous association with places over considerable periods of time (Johnston 1992). The wide range of social values are the result of early settlements associated with whaling (c1832-c1850), timber harvesting (1833-1952), fishing and boat building (1840-1960), settlement and agriculture (c1840-present), and coal mining (1830-1940) (Kostoglou 2000). More recently, other elements also have an impact on the social values, including recreational activities, shack culture, lifestyle, the conservation movement, and the logging industry. The Bay is a popular family-oriented holiday destination due to its safe and sheltered coastal area. The proximity to the sea reduces the incidence of frost and moderates temperature fluctuations while the low altitude (less than 300m) allows for warmer temperatures (TPWS 1994a). This provides a range of recreation activities for people of different ages and interests, such as boating, fishing, camping, day and overnight bushwalking and other beach activities. According to the Far South Profile Tasmanian Visitor Survey conducted by Tourism Tasmania for 12 months ending 30 June 2006, 11,800 people visited the Cockle Creek area (Huon Valley Council 2007). Like many other popular tourism destinations in Tasmania, the population of the Bay fluctuates with the seasons dramatically. The place can be completely empty in winter except for the 14 residents in the region. By contrast, during public holidays and summer months, especially Christmas and Easter Holidays, the population increases considerably with the influx of day and overnight bushwalkers, campers, shack owners, and visitors. It is a key entry point to the Southwest National Park which is a part of the TWWHA, accessed via the South Coast Track that starts from Cockle Creek. Between 2004 and 2005, it is estimated that 10,404 visitors walked the South Coast walk (Huon Valley Council 2007). There are no huts along the 85 km track and the area is constantly exposed under harsh weather. The 6 to 8 days walk is therefore challenging and is only suitable for fully self-sufficient, well-equipped and experienced walkers (TPWS 2011b).

Bay visitors can be divided into four types. Some are shack owners, among whom eleven are permanent residents while others go mostly on weekends or summer. The second group comprises residents of the nearby towns who use the place for family camping and socialisation. They enjoy the different lifestyle and freedom. They usually relax, stroll along the sandy beach, or undertake water activities such as fishing, swimming, and snorkelling. The two hour return walk to Fishers Point and four hour return walk to South Cape Bay on the South Coast track may also be on their activity list. They often camp at the same location in the State Recreation Area where a camping fee is not applied and camp fires are allowed (Figure 5.2). Free camping is important to them, with stays for days and even weeks. In the past, some people used to camp at the same locations for three months, but the maximum time for camping is now regulated as one month considering the increasing usage and cumulative damage to camp sites. The third group is interstate and international visitors or people from other parts of Tasmania caravanning and touring around the State or Australia. They are more likely to camp in the National Park; a fuel stove only area where a park entry and camping fees are applied. Their purpose may include a visit to the southern end of Tasmania and Australia. For bushwalkers, this is the start or finish point for the South Coast Track, and the campground for some walkers who missed the bus back to Hobart. For sailors, the sheltered position of the Bay from the harsh south-westerly winds serves as a waiting point for calmer weather on the way to Port Davey. Port Davey is located on the south west coast of TWWHA adjacent to Bathurst Harbour. The Bay can also be a boating/watercraft destination in its own right.

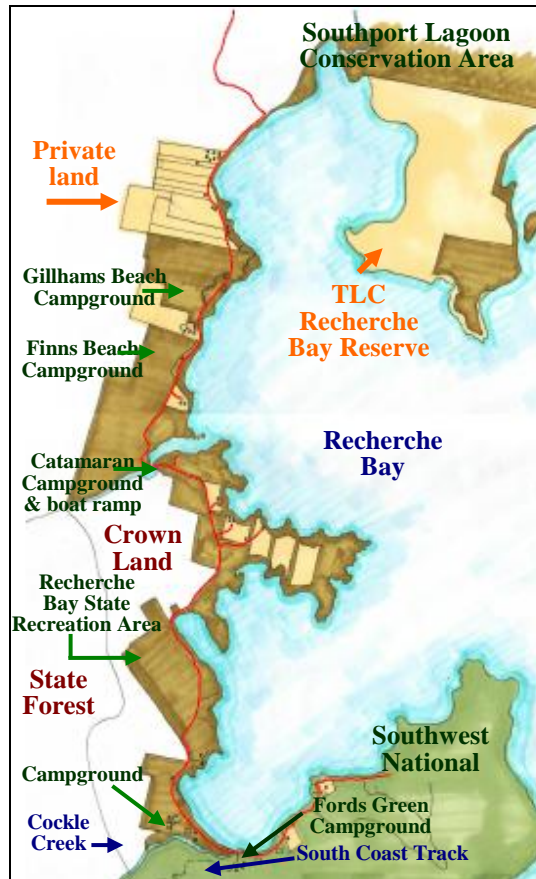


Figure 5.2 – Campgrounds in the Bay

Shack culture remains on private lots within the National Park and in the State Recreation Area, an easygoing relaxing life style valued by some families. It reflects how some people use open and spacious lands in Australia. Some are the residual logging family descendants who have lived there since the 1850s when timber-getting leases were made available to private entrepreneurs. Poulson (2004) noted that the descendants demonstrated an intense pride in the achievements of their forebears. The residents and shack owners also form a close community which shares the same values and history. They have stated that they are not prepared to compromise their lifestyle or the natural and cultural attributes that make the area special; they wish to see no further development ‘at any price’ in efforts to create the area as a desirable visitor destination (Huon Valley Council 2007). However, there are debates on whether social value as part of shack culture should be recognised, and some argue that it is an intrusion upon the natural landscape.

Despite a rich heritage, it was not until a landmark battle between conservationists and

the forestry industry took place in 2002 that Recherche Bay gained much public attention around Tasmania and Australia. The campaign that aims for stopping logging on the private land on the northeast peninsula starts after the timber-getting place was proposed in 2002 (RBPG 2009). After much public debate the land was purchased by the TLC in 2006 (Kitchell 2007) (see Figure 5.1). Powell (2000) wrote that any controversy over the forests has powerful political dimensions in Australia, with logging often the subject of intense public and political debates. The Bay achieved listing as National Heritage in 2005 as a result of this campaign. However, Poulson (2004) pointed out that the descendants of the logging families feel insulted by the discontinuation of logging activities.

Natural value

The fauna and flora are not well investigated and understood in many parts of the Bay. It is located adjacent to the TWWHA where major stages of the earth's evolutionary history and ongoing geological processes have taken place and threatened species of animals or plants of outstanding universal value still survive (TPWS 1999). The site is also the habitat for two threatened species: the Swamp Eyebright near Blackswan Lagoon (Huon Valley Council 2007) and the White-Bellied Sea Eagle on the northeast peninsula (Kitchell 2007). On the northeast peninsula, the area's relatively intact vegetation coupled with the absence of any known weeds or feral animals indicates a relatively full and healthy faunal composition typical of such vegetation types (Kitchell 2007). Southport Lagoon has rich water bird habitat in the lagoons and fringing vegetation; fish nursery sites are in the seagrass beds, wetlands, and lagoon systems and many bird species are of individual conservation significance (TPWS 2006). Wedge tailed eagles, grey goshawks as well as swift parrots can be observed (Huon Valley Council 2007). Some uncommon plant communities also occur. An unusual form of leek orchid has been found at a spot along the South Coast Track through Blowhole Valley (TPWS 1994a), shown on the Fig. 5.1 map. The heaths around Southport Lagoon are rich in species that have been eliminated elsewhere. In the northeast peninsula, there are areas of old growth forest with rainforest understorey that are not common in coastal areas of southeast Tasmania (Kitchell 2007). The site also bears earth science resources, such as Blanket bogs underlying the Blowhole Valley moorlands consisting of organic soil which develop slowly from the accumulation of

organic matter, and which could provide important scientific information on soil development approximately 10,000 years ago (TPWS 1994a). Ancient limestone and dolomite caves have continued nature's artistry for over 40 million years around this area (Huon Valley Council 2007). The geo-heritage includes good representations of two bay mouth spits and rare fossilised fern fragments of considerable scientific value in Southport Lagoon.

Landscape value

The landscape values are very high in relatively undisturbed landscapes which can appear little changed since the eighteenth century French expeditions. The TWWHA holds outstanding natural phenomena, formations, features, and areas of exceptional natural beauty (TPWS 1999). The local government authority, the Huon Valley Council (2007), with considerable justification, describes the land from Dover to Cockle Creek encompassing evocative natural landscapes with vast and pristine waterways, magnificent coastlines, jagged mountain ranges, and fertile valleys. The views across the Bay to the forested and undisturbed northeast peninsula or to the National Park with often snow-capped peaks of Southern Ranges are remarkably beautiful. The considerable recreation and tourism resources and result in the demands for and pressure from tourism developments. It is also the natural beauty that underpinned much of the public interest in protecting the peninsula (Kitchell 2007). The relatively untouched wild land and seascapes together with the heritage of the Far South area offer a sense of remoteness and isolation (Huon Valley Council 2007). The sense of the pristine and undisturbed provides a change from civilisation and daily life that offers a different environment for people to enjoy.

The remnants of human activities are a part of its outstanding landscape. The Aboriginal and historic events left various physical vestiges which survive, such as flensing platforms, try-pot nests, and whalers' accommodation (DeGryse & Hepper 2000). Although some traces of these past activities have vanished, the awareness of the extraordinary history still forms a critical part of the exceptional cultural landscape, which witnesses a disappeared civilisation and connects the past and the present day.

Issues associated with the landscape are forest operations. Under the Forest Practices Code, landscape management is required and cultural heritage provisions emphasise

the need to protect physical remnants of the past, the reduction of the visual impact of harvested areas, and the need to harmonise with the local character and land use patterns (Gaughwin 2006). However, the landscape section of the Code does not consider cultural landscapes (Gaughwin 2006). The scenic values have been threatened by forest operations around the Bay (TPWS 2006) and timber harvesting has immediate potential to impact on cultural landscapes values in the area (Gaughwin 2006).

5.2.3 Management objectives

This section firstly outlines the overall management objectives of various reserves in the Bay that are identified by most respondents as important to them. Therefore, only five out of nine types of the land tenures are considered here. Detailed objectives associated with my study subjects are described. This also includes the visions for the tourism development in the Far South proposed by the local tourism industry. The management objectives showed that the goals were to protect the natural and cultural resources as well as the relatively undeveloped state. The encouragement of appropriate recreation and tourism opportunities was also important in some areas except the TLC Reserve. The details of the management objectives were outlined as follows.

Southwest National Park

The Park is a part of the TWWHA that includes several other national parks. The overall management objective is to identify, protect, conserve, present and, where appropriate, rehabilitate world heritage and other natural and cultural values (TPWS 1999). For tourism and recreational use, the aims are not to compromise the values or the quality of visitor experience. The objectives for accommodation management are to encourage the provision of accommodation in nearby townships and areas adjacent to the WHA in accordance with the zoning scheme, consistent with environmental and other management considerations within the WHA.

Southport Lagoon Conservation Area

The 4,280ha Conservation Area is approximately 80km south of Hobart. Management issues are mostly associated with increasing recreational pressure and high wildfire frequencies. Inappropriate recreational vehicle use associated with four-wheel driving has caused much physical damage (TPWS 2006). The management objective associated

with tourism is “to encourage appropriate tourism, recreational use and enjoyment (including private uses) consistent with the conservation of the conservation area’s natural and cultural values” (TPWS 2006, p.7).

Tasmanian Land Conservancy Recherche Bay Reserve

This reserve covers a 143.9 ha block on the northeast peninsula of the Bay acquired by the TLC - a non-profit organisation that raises funds from the public to purchase and manage land in Tasmania, protecting important natural places. The overarching objective is to ensure conservation of the natural and cultural heritage values (Kitchell 2007). The management objectives related to my research are:

1. To preserve the Land’s remote character and landscape
2. To encourage education and interpretation of the Land’s natural and cultural heritage values
3. Subject to the outcomes of environmental assessments and risk and cost-benefit analyses that demonstrate the Land’s conservation values will not be compromised and the TLC will not be financially disadvantaged, allow limited recreation use, including low-impact tourism (Kitchell 2007).

Recherche Bay State Recreation Area

The management objectives for the visitor services site in the Recreation Area are to:

1. Encourage recreation consistent with resource protection and maintenance of scenic quality
2. Develop and manage the site planning area as an integrated, accessible WHA destination for visitors
3. Assist visitor appreciation and enjoyment
4. Provide and manage a range of recreation opportunities to cater for year round use by shack owners, visitors on extended camping or caravan holidays, walkers, and day or overnight visitors
5. Maximise the quality of recreation experience of visitors to the area through the provisions of suitable facilities and services (TPWS 1994a, p.26).

Far South area

The Far South area contains the region south of Dover, which is 83 kilometres south of Hobart. This region includes township of Dover and places such as Southport, Lune River, Hastings, Cockle Creek and Recherche Bay. In the Far South Tasmania Tourism Development Strategy published by the Huon Valley Council in 2007, five key contributors to the future of the local tourism industry are identified by participants in a tourism workshop held in 2006. The participants were mainly members of the Far South

Tourism Network composed of local businesses in the region from Dover to Cockle Creek. Their priority is to encourage an authentic and personal connection between visitors and the natural surroundings and in doing so, to promote an increased understanding of wilderness values (Huon Valley Council 2007). Five key contributors to the future of the local tourism industry are:

1. A focus on small-scale eco-tourism (a recent review of the workshop outcomes resulted in a change from small-scale eco-tourism to small-scale tourism businesses)
2. Maintaining natural areas in a relatively undeveloped state
3. Keeping close links with the local people and their lifestyles
4. Retaining a physical position as the [island's] southern-most region
5. Growth through yield rather than profitless volume.

5.2.4 Proposed tourism development and associated issues

A new ecotourism resort near Cockle Creek proposed by Staged Developments Pty Ltd was given approval by the Tasmanian Government in 2001. This proposal was underway when my research commenced in 2007, but was halted in May 2009 leaving a new road on the proposed site and its freehold land up for sale. Although the development has been abandoned, the circumstances and debates provide a good opportunity to explore the impacts of tourism developments in protected areas.

The place for the proposed development lay immediately inside the Southwest National Park on a spur just to the south of Snake Point near Planters Beach (Figure 5.3). The management plan was modified to convert the Wilderness Zone into a Visitor Services Zone at the location of the proposed development (TPWS 2002b). The Wilderness Zones include areas of high wilderness quality and remote and/or natural characteristics, while the Visitor Services Zones are areas where the majority of visitor facilities are provided (TPWS 1999). Prior to development, further on-site assessment of the area was recommended by the Aboriginal Heritage section of the Tasmanian Department of Primary Industries, Parks, Water and Environment (DPIPWE) because the Tasmanian Aboriginal Land Council had not endorsed the proposal (Pedder 2000). Various consultants examined the place and several archaeological vestiges of a range of historical activities were identified. Suggestions were then made to reduce the impacts of the development on these heritage sites. The tourist facility was intended to comprise a lodge and quality cabin or unit accommodation (55-60 units initially, with a maximum of 80 units in total) linked by boardwalks, an 800m extension of the original road,

and a jetty. The central lodge complex was to provide lounge, dining, kitchen, and bar facilities catering for 80 persons, in addition to reception, lobby, administrative, and amenity spaces. The lodge would also have activity, interpretive, and educational facilities for the likes of school groups and business conventions. Additional buildings would include shelter huts located along Planters Beach and adjacent to the creek south of the proposed jetty; look-out platforms or shelters at the eastern and western ends of Planters Beach; and a service compound or workshop facility located on elevated land south of the development.

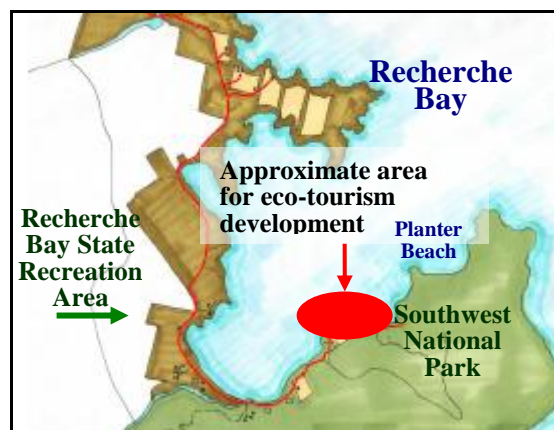


Figure 5.3 – Proposed eco-lodge development

There are voices against the proposal, such as the Tasmanian National Parks Association (TNPA) - a non-profit, non-government organisation which aims to preserve and ensure appropriate management of Tasmania's national parks was against the development. A major objection is the potential for infrastructure to damage heritage values (Kostoglou 2000; TNPA 2010). In order to protect the rich cultural heritage and to limit the impact on the National Park, the Minister for Tourism, Arts and the Environment has signed two heritage agreements with the developer (Heritage Tasmania 2006). However, the local community considered their inclusion in the consultation process was inadequate and remained outraged by the development (Poulson 2004).

5.3 Case study - Tasman National Park

This case study introduction follows the format for Recherche Bay. In this instance, the proposed development is for a Three Capes Track, and debates and concerns are discussed in parallel. For the management objectives, not all of the reserves in the Park are discussed. Only those that are identified by most respondents as important to them are outlined.

5.3.1 Location and study boundary

Tasman National Park, of 10,755ha, was declared in 1999 (TPWS 2001a). It is located on the Tasman and Forestier Peninsulas in south-east Tasmania, approximately 75km south-east of Hobart (Figure 5.4). The study area includes the Tasman National Park (IUCN II), Eaglehawk Neck Historic Site (V), Mount Arthur State Reserve (III), Palmers Lookout State Reserve (III), Pirates Bay State Reserve (III), Safety Cove State Reserve (III), Stewarts Bay State Reserve (III) Tessellated Pavement State Reserve (III), Fortescue Bay Visitor Services Zone, and Remarkable Cave Visitor Services Site (Figure 5.5).



Figure 5.4 – Tasman study boundary



Figure 5.5 – Tasman National Park and adjacent reserves

5.3.2 Significance

This section begins with the heritage value associated with the Aboriginal heritage and historic events. The social value in terms of the current usage and importance to the society is described. The important natural resources are then outlined. The landscape value is also identified to address the significance of the Park.

Heritage value

Past usage by Aborigines and Europeans has left a series of both coastal and inland sites, buildings, and relics, cultural landscapes and records that form a cultural resource (TPWS 2001a). For instance, more than seventy Aboriginal sites are recorded on the peninsula, including one of the few hand stencil art sites known in Tasmania and indications are that many other sites have yet to be found (Australian Heritage Database 2011d). Tasman Peninsula also hosts one of the best collections of British penal station remains in the world. This includes extant prison complexes, wharves, farms, tramways, quarries, mines, garden plots, constable stations, semaphore stations, cemeteries and other remains spread across the peninsula (AHD 2011d). The Port Arthur Historic Site (see Figure 5.6) - one of the best preserved and most visited convict sites in Australia - and the Coal Mines Historic Site - the only extant convict coal mine in Australia and the first commercial mine in Tasmania (AHD 2005a) - are listed as both World Heritage and National Heritage. The beds and footings of the mine winding and pumping machinery installed in 1845 represent the earliest pit top workings in Australia (AHD 2011d). Other convict sites, like the guard station where a line of dogs was tethered across Eaglehawk Neck to prevent convict escape, is well maintained. The post-penal settlement of the area also left remains throughout the landscape associated with forestry activities, farming and orcharding. More recently, the Tasman Island Lighthouse built in 1906 was placed on the Commonwealth Heritage List (significant heritage places owned or controlled by the Australian Government). It is part of a relatively intact early twentieth century complex of lighthouse, service buildings, and haulage system (AHD 2004).



Figure 5.6 – Some of the major attractions of the Park

Social value

The outstanding cultural heritage and close proximity to Hobart contribute to the popularity of the Park, with an estimate of 191,000 annual visitors (TPWS 2010). The extremely rugged coastline with towering cliffs, long white sandy beaches, and diverse coastal heathlands as well as spectacular endemic plant species and beautiful sheltered rainforests can attract people with different interests. Major features are thirty-five diverse and accessible bushwalks in and around the Park, ranging from a fifteen-minute family stroll to a few-hour day walk and walks over several days. These are described in *Peninsula Tracks* published by Peter and Shirley Storey, the main instigators of the creation of the Park in 1999. The Peninsula's mountains are not high but they rise directly from sea level and many have lookouts at or near their summits which make them spectacular destinations (Storey & Storey 1996).

Fortescue Bay is a popular family camping and fishing holiday destination. It has been highly valued by Tasmanians who have camped at the same location every year for generations. Due to the increasing usage, more facilities have been provided including water, hot showers, toilets, and day use barbeque areas. The campground is subject to fees and a booking system. Reservation is necessary for camping on public holidays. The shallow and sheltered bay with a long, wide sandy beach with wetlands and a lagoon is suitable for water activities (AHD 2011a). There are two to four hours scenic walks to Canoe Bay, Bivouac Bay, and Cape Hauy along towering cliffs with excellent sea views (see Figure 5.6). The last is also the start point for the overnight walk to Cape Pillar. Moreover, Fortescue Bay has a past post-convict industrial history of

sawmilling, fishing, and a cannery (AHD 2011a). The excellent sea views allow for the study of marine animals such as whales, dolphins, and seals.

The Park also provides a wide range of recreational activities, including sightseeing, fishing, diving, camping, surfing, rock climbing, and boating. It is a popular place for private and commercial tuna fishing. The sea stacks north of Fortescue Bay, the Candlestick and Totem Pole at Cape Hauy, as well as cliffs around Mt Brown are well known sites for rock climbing and abseiling (see Figure 5.6). Ship Stern Bluff and Tunnel Bay provide one of the best massive wave surfing locations around the world. A range of tourism products are also available on the Peninsula, such as sea cruises and guided tours in Port Arthur as well as a diversity of tourist attractions and accommodation. Sightseeing day trips from Hobart include stops at striking coastal features on the way to Port Arthur, which is a major tourism destination in Tasmania, attracting over 250,000 day visitor per year (PAHSMA 2010).

Natural value

Various areas in and around the Park are listed on the Register of the National Estate for their geoconservation values as well as significant flora and fauna. Such places occur on both Forestier and Tasman Peninsulas. A range of coastal geological features and processes demonstrate the principal characteristics of regional geodiversity (AHD 2011c). These features include sea cliffs, which are some of Australia's most spectacular: the massive dolerite columns in Cape Pillar rise nearly 300m from the ocean. There are many other examples around this rugged coastline, such as Tasman Arch, fashioned by the erosive action of the sea on 75 - 100m high Permian sandstone and mudstone cliff faces. Two distinct land units are presented in the Pirates Bay Reserve: a beach system from Eaglehawk Neck to the southern end of Pirates Bay; and coastal cliffs and hinterland from Fossil Island to Waterfall Bay. This geodiversity is fundamental to broader ecological processes, contributing to the richness and interest in this environment, and provides opportunities for scientific study of the earth's development.

The Park's flora is particularly distinctive for its diversity and uncommon plant communities, taking into account their abundance, distribution, and variability: it contains more than one third of the plant species found in the State, with several

species endemic to the two peninsulas (TPWS 2001a). Fortescue Bay has unusually diverse vegetation; its beach, free from exotic marram grass, is also unusual on Tasmania's east coast. Forestier Peninsula is important for species richness (AHD 2010). Many other striking characteristics could be mentioned. For example, the herbs *Euphrasia phragmostoma* and *Euphrasia semipicta*, vulnerable at both national and State levels, are found in Cape Pillar State Reserve and nowhere else (AHD 2010). Other species like *Craspedia glauca* and *Agrostis aequata* are rare plant species in Tasmania whilst *Senecio capillifolius* is rare nationally (AHD 2010). Several heath communities found at Cape Pillar are unusual in that they occur on the relatively nutrient-rich parent material dolerite in extremely exposed situations.

The undisturbed status of the vegetation is another outstanding element. The condition and integrity of Tasman Peninsula was assessed using the biophysical naturalness scheme. The result indicates that 19.8% of the Peninsula has a biophysical naturalness rating (BN) of 5 and 32.7% has a BN of 4, which means low disturbance on a scale of zero (high disturbance) to five (low disturbance) (AHD 2011d).

The range of diverse fauna communities on the peninsula is outstanding. Forestier Peninsula is an indicative National Estate place for its natural significance as a key faunal habitat critical to the continuing viability of the Tasmanian fauna as a whole. The Park contains a diversity of animal species, with several being endemic to the peninsulas and several birds listed on the threatened species list (TPWS 2001a). For example, a rare endemic sandhopper species and the threatened hooded plover are found in Fortescue Bay, also the only known locality for an undescribed landhopper (terrestrial Amphipod). Eaglehawk Neck is one of three major breeding colonies for the Little Penguin. Fortescue Bay is a breeding ground for fairy penguins, and also hosts the highest diversity of strandline fauna of any sandy beach in Tasmania. Tasman Island, just south of Cape Pillar (see Figure 5.6), supports the Fairy Prion breeding colony as well as significant rookeries of Little Penguin, Short-tailed Shearwater, and Sooty Shearwater. Other examples include fur seals near the Cape Raoul. The conservation values of the Park are highly vulnerable to disturbance in the form of increased foot traffic or disturbance of the foreshore and dune vegetation.

Landscape value

The immense scenic attraction of the Park arises from the combination of the cultural and natural components. The cultural landscape includes the Tasman Island Lighthouse, one of the highest lighthouses in Australia, and its dramatic, wild setting ringed by sea-cliffs creates a strong aesthetic appeal (AHD 2011d). The penal stations based on the exploitation of the natural resources of Tasman Peninsula juxtapose pockets of English style institutional landscapes with forested hills and seascapes (AHD 2011d). The Park is also well known for its unique erosional features. These include the previously mentioned coastal cliffs and beaches, as well as sea caves and dramatic rock foundations. Tasman Arch State Reserve is noted for its important examples of a range of coastal geological features, including caves, Tasman Arch and the Eaglehawk Neck Blowhole that provide dramatic evidence of the erosive action of the sea (AHD 2011d). Another landscape attraction is the extensive views of the ocean from the capes in the Park that offer outstanding scenery where no permanent human traces can be seen. These create a sense of remoteness and the feelings of standing on the edge of the world, a contrast with cities, towns, and daily life. A well-known eco-cruise traverses the rugged Tasman Peninsula coastline offshore from the Park, offering spectacular coastal scenery and wildlife experiences.

5.3.3 Management objectives

Tasman National Park

The management objectives relating to visitor impacts are to protect, maintain and monitor environmental and heritage values as well as the special tourism and recreation character of the park and reserves. Another aim is to maintain the park and reserves in a state that is valued by visitors. The objectives of managing development works are to:

1. avoid or minimise the impact of development works on park and reserve values
2. protect, maintain and monitor the special tourism and recreation character of the park and reserves
3. foster public confidence in approved developments (TPWS 2001a).

The objectives of developing visitor facilities and services are to:

1. provide opportunities for activities, relaxation, contemplation, enjoyment and educational experiences through direct contact or participatory involvement with the values of the park and reserves

2. enhance visitor experiences of the park and reserves
3. encourage understanding of and support for the park and reserves by highlighting and presenting the values of the park and reserves
4. safeguard the special visitor use of the park and reserves
5. minimise impacts on park and reserve values
6. promote sound, sustainable, environmental behaviour and practices
7. contribute directly to meeting the costs of researching, protecting, and managing the park and reserves
8. provide economic benefit to the community (TPWS 2001a).

Pirates Bay State Reserve

The management objective of the Reserve associated with tourism is “to encourage tourism, recreational use and enjoyment consistent with the conservation of the State reserve's natural and cultural values” (TPWS 2001a, p.6). The objectives for the Pirates Bay Visitor Service Zone in particular are to:

1. provide a high quality visitor experience to a wide range of users and recreational activities including fishing, walking, surfing, nature watching and sight-seeing
2. protect or enhance outstanding natural and cultural heritage values of the zone in line with community expectations, best practice management guidelines and statutory requirements
3. engage the community in planning for any management or development not clearly spelt out in the site plan
4. provide different user groups with a high quality experience
5. make a valuable contribution to tourism, heritage protection and presentation and economic activity in the region
6. enhance the local communities quality of life (TPWS 2007b).

Fortescue Bay Visitor Services Zone

The objectives for the Zone are to:

1. provide high quality recreational and tourism opportunities for day and overnight visits consistent with the natural and cultural setting
2. protect and conserve the family and recreational atmosphere and character
3. minimise the impact of recreation and tourism on significant natural and cultural features
4. provide recreational and tourism opportunities consistent with the above objectives (TPWS 2003a).

5.3.4 New tourism development and accompanied issues

In 2005, Tasmanian Government proposed the 68km Three Capes Track as a new long distance walk for Tasmania. Part of the purpose is to reduce the pressure on and demand for the six-day 65km route through the TWWHA Overland Track between Cradle Mt and

Lake St Clair, which has gained icon status as one of the world's great bushwalks (TPWS 2007c). Eighteen potential locations were evaluated with respect to the key attributes sought by visitors and many other criteria. The Tasman Park was chosen because of the spectacular scenery, diverse tourism products, easy access to Hobart, and existing tourist attractions and accommodation. The proposal aims to deliver a multi-day world class wilderness experience for visitors whilst enjoying safe and comfortable facilities (TPWS 2007c). It was believed that such a development would add a new focus to the Tasman Peninsula region visitor experience as well as attract additional flow-on economic benefits of investment and employment, with the potential for up to 10,000 walkers departing during the peak season; an additional 50,000 bed nights per annum on the Tasman Peninsula; 35 direct new jobs in the region, and \$18.6 million in visitor expenditure per annum (TPWS 2007c). The economic impact analysis for the proposal published by the TPWS indicates relatively limited benefits to the local community (Syneca Consulting 2008). Another report published by the Tourism Industry Council of Tasmania shows that compared with the \$4.5 million economic benefit to Tasmania from 10,000 guided walkers, the figure for Tasman Peninsula would be \$0.315 million. There would be an estimated 741 extra jobs in Tasmania supported by the proposal while the number would be 203 on Tasman Peninsula (KPMG International 2010).

This five night six day, hut-based, one-way bushwalk encompasses Cape Hauy, Cape Pillar, and Cape Raoul (Figure 5.7). The proposed walk would begin at White Beach and finish at Fortescue Bay, with a boat trip to Pirates Bay. The management plan was modified to convert some of the Natural Zone into Recreation Zone at the location of the proposed overnight points and new tracks (TPWS 2008). The Natural Zones are in a relatively unmodified condition and contain important natural and cultural values, whereas the Recreation Zones include areas that are suitable for relatively high levels of day and overnight use due to their location and access (TPWS 2001a). The construction includes 30km of new walking track, major upgrades to 25 km of existing track, and minor upgrades to about 13km of existing track. Other infrastructures include new view or rest areas, interpretation, entry or exit signs, and track signs. Five overnight stop points are proposed in the Recreation Zone of the Park with two huts at each, incorporating water supply and storage, toilet, and accommodation. A bigger public hut with basic facilities will be managed by the TPWS. A smaller hut with higher level

facilities will be run by a private commercial partner, who will provide a fully guided experience. The huts will have an accommodation capacity of up to 60 persons each and will comprise bunk rooms with mattresses, solar lighting and heating in the kitchen or dining areas, gas cookers, tables, benches, and cold running water. The walk will be managed to cater for a maximum 60 walkers departing daily. Based on the Overland Track model, a \$200 (\$40 per night) TPWS fee and a booking system during the peak season for individual walkers is proposed. In addition, guided walks with an estimate cost of \$2500 (Syneca Consulting 2008) will be provided by commercial operators.

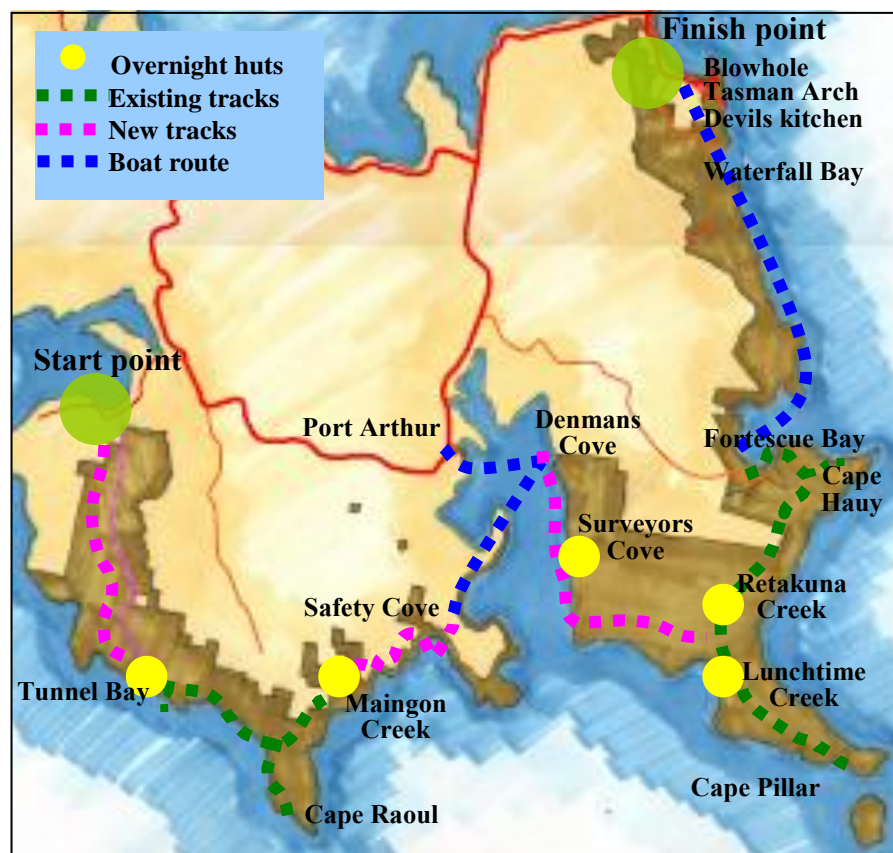


Figure 5.7 – Three Capes Track proposal

There are voices objecting the proposal. For instance, of the 237 public submissions who addressed the Three Capes development, 209 of them were against it and only eight supported the proposal. The TNPA also addressed that its main concern is with the excessive level of infrastructure that is proposed to be built in the Park, primarily associated with the five accommodation nodes (TNPA 2011). Other issues raised over the Three Capes proposal include threats to the natural resources and doubtful economic benefit to the economy of Tasman Peninsula. The proposal was not accompanied by an

environmental impact assessment. There are concerns for the threats to eagle and owl nesting sites, threatened flora, and spread of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* as well as cultural landscape values associated with Aboriginal heritage sites (TNPA 2008).

Chapter 6 **Sense of place results**

In this chapter I first summarise the characteristic of the survey respondents. I then present results from both interviews and questionnaires related to sense of place. These results concern include the senses of place respondents have for my case study protected areas, the determinants of these senses of place, and their influences over perceptions of tourism impacts as well as attitudes to tourism developments.

The first section presents perceptions of the atmosphere of the Bay and the Park and the characteristics that contribute to this atmosphere, as obtained from both the questionnaire and the interviews. The second part details those places that questionnaire respondents regarded as special, and indicates their preferred places for protection and tourism developments. This is followed by the analysis of the results of the place attachment scale. Correlations between characteristics of questionnaire respondents and the senses of place these respondents expressed are then assessed. The influences of questionnaire respondents' perceptions of tourism impacts and their attitudes to tourism developments on the results from the place attachment scale are also tested. In every section, similarities and differences among stakeholder groups (local community people, non-local visitors, non-local environmental group members and Tasmanian Government staff) are examined.

6.1 Survey respondents' characteristics

In this section, I summarise the characteristics of the survey respondents. Due to the multiple methods I adopted to distribute the questionnaires, the response rate cannot be calculated. For example, some questionnaires were sent to a number of governmental institutions and local interest groups. Some of them did not distribute all the questionnaires I gave to them to their staff or members. The fact that I distributed the questionnaires on site by leaving them on top of visitors' cars and tents means that revisiting visitors may receive more than one copy of my questionnaire.

6.1.1 Recherche Bay

In total, there were 314 respondents to the Recherche Bay surveys. A small 2.5% of the respondents worked for the Tasmanian Government, while 61.8% were visitors from

outside the study area, and 25.2% were non-locals belonging to environmental groups (Table 6-1). The remaining 10.5% were local business or non-business people.

Table 6-1 – Respondents' stakeholder cohort type of the Bay

<i>Variables (n=314)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Local	
Businesses	2.9
Non-businesses	7.6
Non-local	
Visitors	61.8
Members of environmental groups	25.2
Tasmanian Government staff	2.5

The sample comprised a relatively even spread across gender (Table 6-2). Respondents' ages ranged between eighteen and eighty-five, with 48.5% eighteen to fifty years old and 51.4% over fifty-one. Three quarters had tertiary qualifications (50.7% university). Employment types covered a wide range, though a quarter were students.

Table 6-2 – Socio-economic characteristics of respondents of the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Gender (n=308)</i>		<i>Highest educational level completed (n=298)</i>	
Male	46.1	Primary school	.6
Female	53.9	Secondary school	25.8
<i>Age (years) (n=303)</i>		TAFE/Technical college	22.8
18-30	12.2	University	50.7
31-40	13.5	<i>Employment (n=290)</i>	
41-50	22.8	Professional & Technical services	3.1
51-60	29.0	Retired	7.2
>60	22.4	Recreation & Tourism services	5.5
		Government	4.8
		Administration & Trade	41.7
		Agriculture, Fishing, Forestry & Mining	6.9
		Manufacturing & Construction	7.2
		Student	23.4

Amongst those who had property in the Bay (9.4%), by far most were shack owners, as opposed to those with a house (Table 6-3). (Note that there are only eleven permanent residents in the study area.) Years of ownership were fairly evenly spread across categories (varying between seven and ninety-four years) and remarkably long-term.

Table 6-3 – Respondents' property ownership in the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Property ownership (n=266)</i>	
Had no property	90.6
Had property	9.4
<i>Type of property (n=29)</i>	
House	21.7
Shack	82.6
Block of land	21.9
Other (Bed & Breakfast and farms)	0
<i>Length of property ownership (years) (n=14)</i>	
1-30	35.7
31-40	28.6
>40	35.7

A significant proportion of respondents was born in Australia (78.2%) (Table 6-4), just over half of these in Tasmania, 8.4% of them in the Far South. Almost all lived in Australia, of whom three quarters lived in Tasmania, 16.2% in the Far South. The

overseas contingent was a tiny 1.6%. More than ninety percent were long term Australian residents, 38.0% Tasmanian and 11.3% Far South.

Table 6-4 – Respondents' connection with the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Birthplace</i>	<i>Residence</i>	<i>Place of longest residence</i>
<i>Australia or overseas</i>	n=308	n=306	n=305
Australia	78.2	98.4	92.5
Overseas	21.8	1.6	7.5
<i>Tasmania or mainland Australia</i>	n=250	n=309	n=292
Tasmania	56.8	75.4	38.0
Mainland Australia	43.2	24.6	62.0
<i>Far South or Tasmania outside Far South</i>	n=250	n=309	n=292
Tasmania outside Far South	91.6	83.8	88.7
Far South	8.4	16.2	11.3

Table 6-5 shows that around 96.5% of the respondents had heard of the Bay and 87.3% had visited. Total frequency of visits by 261 people ranged between one and two thousand times, and about half of these had been visiting for over ten years. Most in the samples had been there in the previous year either once or a few times (total 70.6%), 12.8% had not, and the balance more often.

Table 6-5 – Respondents' familiarity with the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Awareness of the Bay (n=314)</i>		<i>Total length of visitation (years) (n=255)</i>	
Had heard	96.5	0-10	43.9
Had not heard	3.5	10.5-25	30.6
<i>Visitation to the Bay (n=314)</i>		>25	25.5
Had visited	87.3	<i>Frequency of visitation in the past one year (n=266)</i>	
Had not visited	12.7	Not at all	12.8
<i>Total frequency of visitation (n=261)</i>		Once	46.0
once	22.2	A few times	30.6
2-19 times	43.7	Once a month	4.5
20-99 times	17.6	2-3times a month	4.2
>100 times	16.5	Once a week	0.8
		More than once a week	1.1

High numbers took part variously in a wide range of outdoor activities, but those sightseeing and spending time with their families or friends were also substantial (Table 6-6). Their intentions in the Bay were similarly varied: very high priorities were enjoyment of scenery, experiencing nature and a different lifestyle but, again, being with a friend or family rated substantially. Very few visited alone, a quarter in groups of over four. Most took advantage of holiday periods of one kind or another, but weekday visits were substantial, while 14.5% mentioned family events. About a third was day visitors, but near 70% stayed in Recherche Bay for between two to over 30 days.

Table 6-6 – Respondents’ interaction with the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Activity (n=266)</i>		<i>Number of companion (n=254)</i>	
Day bushwalking	76.7	2-4	45.7
Relaxing	70.3	>4	25.6
Camping	61.7	1	23.2
Spending time with family/friends	48.9	0	5.5
Sightseeing	48.5	<i>Time of visitation (n=249)</i>	
Swimming	47.4	Weekends	54.6
Walking for exercise	42.9	Summer holidays	47.0
Fishing	42.1	Week days	39.4
Boating	30.5	Public holidays	32.1
Overnight bushwalking	30.1	Easter holiday	28.1
Kayaking	27.4	School holidays	19.3
Scuba diving/snorkelling	14.7	Special family occasions	14.5
Cycling	7.5	<i>Length of each visitation (days) (n=258)</i>	
Other	6.8	1 or less	32.6
Motor sports	2.6	2-7	58.9
<i>Purpose of visitation (n=263)</i>		8-14	5.0
Enjoy scenery	83.7	15-21	.8
Undertake activity	79.8	22-30	.4
Be close to nature	74.9	>30	2.3
Enjoy freedom	57.0		
Be with friend	37.6		
Learn history/nature	35.7		
Be with family	31.9		
Experience different lifestyle	23.6		
Meet new people	12.9		
Other	3.4		
Work (not tourism related)	2.7		
Work (tourism related)	2.3		

The sample was adequate given its comprehensive strategy to approach different stakeholder groups (see Section 4.3.4). For instance, the sample covered all local businesses, environmental groups and visitor groups who undertook the identified recreation activities (see Table 4-1). There was no independently collected representative visitor data to provide a basis for demonstrating whether or not my sample was representative of the visitor population.

6.1.2 Tasman National Park

In total, there were 401 respondents to the Tasman surveys. With respect to stakeholder cohorts, about a third was environmental group members (half of them local people): a breakdown of memberships is included in Table 6-7. Otherwise, respondents were predominantly local ‘non-business’ and visitors from outside the peninsula.

Table 6-7 – Respondents’ stakeholder cohort type and three environmental groups of the Park

<i>Variables (n=401)</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Local s	Members of environmental groups
	18.2
	Business
Non-locals	6.5
	Non-business
	20.0
Tasmanian Government staff	Visitors
	34.4
Environmental groups	Members of environmental groups
	17.0
<i>Variables (n=141)</i>	
<i>Percentage</i>	
Tasmanian Conservation Trust	61.0
	Peninsula Environmental Network
	35.5
Tasmanian National Parks Association	
3.5	

The sample was composed of a relatively even spread across gender (Table 6-8). Their ages ranged between eighteen and eighty-eight with higher proportions of people over fifty years old. Most of the respondents had university degree. They were working as “professional and technical services” and “recreation and tourism services”.

Table 6-8 – Socio-economic characteristics of respondents of the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Gender (n=395)</i>		<i>Highest educational level completed (n=390)</i>	
Male	52.9	Primary school	.6
Female	47.1	Secondary school	19.5
<i>Age (years) (n=389)</i>		TAFE/Technical college	19.7
18-30	10.3	University	60.3
31-40	14.7	<i>Employment (n=382)</i>	
41-50	21.9	Professional & Technical services	39.8
51-60	26.0	Retired	24.6
>60	27.2	Recreation & Tourism services	11.0
		Government	7.3
		Administration & Trade	5.8
		Agriculture, Fishing, Forestry & Mining	3.9
		Manufacturing & Construction	3.9
		Student	3.7

The majority of the respondents did not have property on Tasman Peninsula while 37.5% had property (Table 6-9). Over 70% of those property owners had houses, but a quarter had a shack. Duration of ownership ranged between one and fifty-five years.

Table 6-9 – Respondents’ property ownership on Tasman Peninsula

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Property ownership (n=387)</i>	
Had no property	62.5
Had property	37.5
<i>Type of property (n=165)</i>	
House	72.2
Shack	23.6
Block of land	15.3
Other (Bed & Breakfast and farms)	3.5
<i>Length of property ownership (years) (n=138)</i>	
<9	35.5
9-20	29.7
>20	34.8

More than seventy percent of 395 people were born in Australia (75.2%) (Table 6-10), with a relatively even spread born in Tasmania and other States/Territories; near 6% of Tasmanians were born on the Peninsula. Only 3% of the respondents resided overseas when they filled in the survey. Of Australian residents, 87.9% lived in Tasmania, and near a third of these on Tasman Peninsula. Of 354 people living in Australia, 244 nominated Tasmania as their place of longest residence, and about 40 Tasman Peninsula.

Table 6-10 – Respondents’ connection with the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Birthplace</i>	<i>Residence</i>	<i>Place of longest residence</i>
<i>Australia or overseas</i>			
Australia	n=395 75.2	n=397 97.0	n=396 88.1
Overseas	24.8	3.0	11.9
<i>Tasmania or mainland Australia</i>			
Tasmania	n=304 51.6	n=389 87.9	n=354 68.9
Mainland Australia	48.4	12.1	31.1
<i>Tasman Peninsula or Tasmania outside the Peninsula</i>			
Tasmania outside Far South	n=157 94.3	n=342 68.1	n=244 83.2
Far South	5.7	31.9	16.8

Table 6-11 reveals that 98.3% of the respondents had heard of the Park as well as had visited the Park, with 35.4% had visited more than one hundred times and 6.5% just once. Their total frequency of visitation ranged between one and five thousand times. The length of their visitation varied from one to eighty years. Over 40% of the users had visited the place for a few times last year.

Table 6-11 – Respondents' familiarity with the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Had heard of TNP (n=401)</i>		<i>Total length of visitation (years) (n=369)</i>	
Had heard	98.3	0-10	30.6
Had not heard	1.7	10.5-25	29.5
<i>Had visited TNP (n=401)</i>		>25.5	39.8
Had visited	97.8	<i>Frequency of visitation in the past one year (n=383)</i>	
Had not visited	2.2	Not at all	6.0
<i>Total frequency of visitation (n=384)</i>		Once	23.8
Once	6.5	A few times	42.6
2-19 times	26.3	Once a month	10.4
20-99 times	31.8	2-3times a month	8.4
>100 times	35.4	Once a week	3.1
		More than once a week	5.7

Respondents undertook a wide range of activities, but relaxing and spending time with family or friends also rated fairly highly (Table 6-12). People mostly named enjoying scenery, nature, and undertaking activities as their intentions of visitation. Almost half of the respondents had 2-4 companions with a quarter visited with one companion or more than four people. Most chose weekends for their visits, but half nominated weekdays, and significant numbers (17-34%) holiday periods of one kind or another. More than half usually spent a day or less, whereas 42.6% stayed between two and seven days.

Table 6-12 – Stakeholders’ interaction with the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Activity (n=386)</i>		<i>Number of companion (n=368)</i>	
Bushwalking- Day or short walks	88.9	2-4	48.4
Sightseeing	74.6	1	24.5
Relaxing	56.2	>4	24.2
Spending time with family/friends	56.2	0	3.0
Camping	49.2	<i>Time of visitation (n=377)</i>	
Picnicking	47.7	Weekends	70.0
Swimming	45.9	Week days	49.3
Bushwalking- Overnight walks	37.6	Summer Holidays	34.2
Fishing	34.5	Public holidays	29.4
Boating	26.9	School holidays	18.3
Scuba diving / Snorkelling	24.6	Easter holidays	16.7
Sea kayaking / Canoeing	23.6	Special family occasions	11.7
Surfing	13.5	<i>Length of each visitation (days) (n=380)</i>	
Cycling	11.1	1 or less	53.9
Sailing	7.3	2-7	42.6
Other	7.0	8-14	1.8
Abseiling / Rock climbing	1.8	15-21	0.0
Hang gliding	0.3	22-30	0.0
<i>Purpose of visitation (n=380)</i>		>30	1.6
Enjoy scenery	88.2		
Undertake activities	81.6		
Be close to nature/ away from city	70.3		
Enjoy freedom	48.2		
Be with friends	39.7		
Be with family	26.8		
Learn about history/ nature	26.8		
Experience different lifestyle	16.3		
Meet new people	6.8		
Work (tourism related)	6.6		
Other	4.2		
Work (not tourism related)	3.7		

6.2 Atmosphere of the Bay and the Park and contributing characteristics

Questionnaire responses regarding place atmosphere and characteristics that contribute to this atmosphere are followed by quotations from the interviews which add depth to understanding the place atmosphere and the contributing characteristics. The relationships between stakeholder groups and the two variables are examined.

6.2.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Among the most chosen three descriptions of the atmosphere of the area, 29.8% of all respondents thought “peaceful” best described the atmosphere of the area, with 25.3% highlighting “natural” and 12.1% considering “pristine” as its attributes (Table 6-13). Yet, some stakeholder groups differed from others. For instance, ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ and ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ believed the area as “historical” rather than “pristine”. ‘Non-business locals’ felt the place as “remote” instead of “natural”.

Table 6-13 – Atmosphere of the Bay

<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>All respondents (n=265)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=153)</i>		<i>Non-local members of environmental groups (n=49)</i>	
Peaceful	29.8	Peaceful	32.0	Natural	40.8
Natural	25.3	Natural	25.5	Peaceful	38.8
Pristine	12.1	Pristine	16.3	Historical	10.2
Other	9.4	Remote	9.8	Remote	6.1
Remote	8.7	Historical	5.9	Pristine	2.0
Historical	7.9	Friendly	4.6	Wild	2.0
Friendly	2.6	Wild	3.3	Friendly	0.0
Wild	2.6	Solitary	2.0	Solitary	0.0
Solitary	1.1	Developed	0.7	Developed	0.0
Developed	0.4	Other	0.0	Other	0.0
<i>Local businesses (n=8)</i>		<i>Local non-businesses (n=22)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Peaceful	37.5	Peaceful	27.3	Natural	37.5
Natural	25.0	Pristine	22.7	Historical	37.5
Pristine	12.5	Remote	18.2	Peaceful	25.0
Remote	12.5	Natural	13.6	Pristine	0.0
Historical	12.5	Historical	13.6	Friendly	0.0
Friendly	0.0	Wild	4.5	Remote	0.0
Solitary	0.0	Friendly	0.0	Solitary	0.0
Wild	0.0	Solitary	0.0	Wild	0.0
Developed	0.0	Developed	0.0	Developed	0.0

The analysis of the top three choices revealed that the majority of the stakeholder groups held the same opinions about the contributing landscape characteristics, which were “ocean scenery”, “beaches” and “ocean sound” (Table 6-14). ‘Members of non-local environmental groups’ differed from others by their choice of “mountains” instead of “ocean sound”.

Table 6-14 – Characteristics of the Bay that contribute to the atmosphere

<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>All respondents (n=265)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=174)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=52)</i>	
Ocean scenery	84.5	Beaches	77.6	Ocean scenery	88.5
Beaches	80.0	Ocean scenery	74.7	Mountains	84.6
Ocean sound	64.5	Ocean sound	61.5	Beaches	82.7
Forest scenery	63.4	Forest scenery	58.6	Forest scenery	82.7
Mountains	63.0	Mountains	58.0	Lagoon & creek	75.0
Lagoon & creek	58.1	Lagoon & creek	54.6	Ocean sound	73.1
Rocky shoreline	56.2	Ocean smell	52.3	Ocean smell	69.2
Ocean smell	55.1	Rocky shoreline	51.7	Rocky shoreline	63.5
Forest smell	49.4	Campsites	48.9	Forest smell	63.5
Historic sites	42.6	Forest smell	46.6	Snow on mountains	61.5
Campsites	39.6	Historic site	41.4	Coastal plains	51.9
Coastal plains	37.0	Camp fires	36.8	Historic site	50.0
Snow on mountains	36.2	Coastal plains	33.9	Sand dunes	42.3
Sand dunes	32.1	Snow on mountains	30.5	Campsites	21.2
Camp fires	30.6	Sand dunes	29.9	Camp fires	15.4
Boats	19.6	Boats	24.1	Boats	11.5
Jetties	17.0	Jetties	22.4	Picnic tables & toilets	9.6
Picnic tables & toilets	15.1	Picnic tables & toilets	19.5	Shacks & houses	7.7
Shacks & houses	15.1	Shacks & houses	14.9	Information signs	3.8
Information signs	10.6	Information signs	11.5	Jetties	3.8
Others	5.7	Others	6.9	Others	3.8
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmania Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Beaches	100.0	Ocean scenery	79.2	Beaches	87.5
Ocean scenery	88.9	Beaches	75.0	Ocean scenery	75.0
Ocean sound	77.8	Ocean sound	62.5	Ocean sound	50.0
Rocky shoreline	77.8	Rocky shoreline	62.5	Lagoon & creek	50.0
Ocean smell	66.7	Forest scenery	62.5	Rocky shoreline	50.0
Mountains	66.7	Mountains	50.0	Mountains	50.0
Lagoon & creek	55.6	Lagoon & creek	45.8	Ocean smell	37.5
Forest scenery	55.6	Ocean smell	41.7	Coastal plains	37.5
Sand dunes	44.4	Forest smell	41.7	Snow on mountains	37.5
Snow on mountains	44.4	Historic site	37.5	Forest scenery	37.5
Forest smell	44.4	Shacks & houses	33.3	Forest smell	37.5
Coastal plains	33.3	Coastal plains	25.0	Campsites	37.5
Historic sites	33.3	Sand dunes	25.0	Historic site	37.5
Campsites	22.2	Camp fires	25.0	Camp fires	25.0
Camp fires	11.1	Snow on mountains	16.7	Sand dunes	12.5
Information signs	11.1	Campsites	16.7	Information signs	12.5
Shacks & houses	11.1	Information signs	16.7	Jetties	12.5
Picnic tables & toilets	0.0	Jetties	12.5	Boats	12.5
Jetties	0.0	Boats	12.5	Shacks & houses	12.5
Boats	0.0	Picnic tables & toilets	4.2	Others	12.5
Others	0.0	Others	0.0	Picnic tables & toilets	0.0

Interview analysis

A beautiful place

Such characteristics as the main landscape features and their combination were identified as valuable. “It’s the distance of the views across the water; that’s important. You got water and mountain close together, which is really nice” (RB11, 5-year government staff).

The beaches around the whale and you look back to Cockle Creek; you see the mountains, especially in winter and see the white beach, rugged coastline, beautiful white beaches, and spectacular mountains. There are not many places you can see the combination That is the landscape that strikes me the most (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy and former government staff).

A 20-year visitor/partner of shack owner RB4-2 said: “It (the beach) is white, it’s pretty, and it’s not polluted. You know you can be on the beach all by yourself”. These landscape characters and privacy contribute to the rarity of the area:

Enjoy everything that is down here, fishing, beach and swimming, just everything you want to do. That is [what] the place is about. ... This is a beautiful spot and there are not many of them around like this any more where you can all come and do your own thing with a space (RB2 34-year shack owner).

Another element is history.

It is the beauty of the place, and the knowledge of what it had happened before, the knowledge of the French, the Aborigines, all the industrial activities, the whaling, the mining, the convicts here, all of that, not so much of the natural environment. ... It is what happened historically there makes it special (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff).

The idea that the first white woman landed in Tasmania was a French woman... It is the place where the first white man was buried. The French man was probably buried around here... The friendly meeting that occurred was on one of the beaches there. On the 28th of February 1793, there was a large meeting between the French and the Aboriginal people... It is around here where they (French exploration ships) first landed (RB13, environmental campaigner for saving the Northeast Peninsula of Recherche Bay/7-year visitor).

A sense of quietness, relaxation, and freedom

Most interviewees described the area as “peaceful” and “quiet”: where “you don’t have to do anything; you don’t want to do anything; if you want to do something, you just go and do it” (RB20, 5-year regular camper). RB8 (26-year Far South resident/ 3-year tourism business manager) said “it is a fun and great place to relax”, and RB19 (first-

time visitor), “easy going, relaxing”. For the shack owners, “it’s always the first choice of a holiday place” (RB4-1, 36-year owner) that “provides different opportunities for different people” (RB3, 30-year visitor/ partner of an owner). A 5-year regular camper RB20 in the Nature Recreation Area recounted the free sites where fires are allowed, making it “freer” whereas “other places were more regimented”. It is “a place to get away ...” (RB21, 15-year regular visitor).

A friendly place

First-time visitor RB19 said that local people were friendly, “people told us where to swim, where to go and what to watch out. People also invite us to stay with them”.

People also made friends. A 30-year visitor/ partner of shack owner RB3 observed:

“people seem to get along well. You met people today you have not met before”. A 40-year visitor/19-year shack owner RB14 had known someone “for a long time, formed a friendship and helped her with her food and mails”. Another shack owner said:

I cannot say I make good friends with people who go down there. I certainly talk to people. We have the friendship when we are in that area. When we go down there, we have things in common. It holds everybody together when we were there. It’s like your own family, but then you went away and you don’t see each other, like you do your family (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner).

The camping ground before the bridge outside the National Park was like “a big family” because “we have known the place before it became a national park and we know Ross Adams and she used to tell us all the stories down there”, described by a 50-year camper RB12. Moss Glen where the offspring of the local logging family resided was also like “a small community”:

... you got to know all the people who lived there, yes, visiting friends there. In the old days, we went dancing down there. There was an empty house and every lady took a plate for supper. There was no other entertainment at that time, so you looked forward to getting together and meeting up with people (RB16 Moss Glen shack owner).

The combination of pleasant, sheltered, and safe surroundings offering a range of activities contributed to a family oriented environment. A 37-year shack owner RB1-1: “They (kids) do healthy things in safe surroundings, no cars around”; and 26-year Far South resident/3-year tourism business manager RB8 :“Kids love down there with the beach; you can just let them run all day”. This view was shared by a 33-year visitor/ partner of shack owner RB2: “Kids and dogs and sports playing. It’s always kids playing at the beach and you know it’s a very family orientated environment and I think that is special”.

Historical ambience

The region was characterised as historic due to its “heritage” (50-year camper RB12; 50-year visitor RB15) and “cultural landscape” (RB6, campaigner/7-year visitor RB13). The logging family who had always been in the Bay were appreciated as part of the history and their lives “an interesting continuum” (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff). The attention to the past was attributed to personal interests in maritime activity (RB5, campaigner/7-year Far South resident), working lives (RB6), and European background (RB10, 7-year Far South resident/2-year accommodation business staff; RB13, campaigner/7-year visitor). Knowledge of the history motivated RB5 and RB13 to campaign to prevent logging of the Northeast Peninsula. The place was associated with significant science because of “geomagnetism a new invention in the navigation world, a way of mapping”, said RB13, who also saw the area as “a cornerstone of a place for reconciliation” with Aboriginal people:

The main point of interest of Recherche Bay is a place of friendly meetings even though it hasn't been acknowledged by many people. ... It was a good example of how they should have been treated ...”

Wild and harsh atmosphere

RB20, 5-year regular camper: “If you go round the corner and it is really wild, see the waves up, especially the weather is always changing; nothing is static here”. RB16 (Moss Glen shack owner) whose family resided in the area since 1878 observed that “weather can make a lot of difference; bad weather is not so good”. RB10, former sea captain and 7-year Far South resident/ 2-year accommodation business staff:

I feel like the harshness they had at that time, the navigation; everything was done by hands and no machines. You didn't know how deep the water was; difficult task to get the drinking water. It would be very hard to get the fresh water.

Natural and undeveloped feeling

RB2 (34-year shack owner) mentioned that “looking through the bay, no signs of life, all natural, apart from the logging”. RB9 (9-year resident/tourism business owner) said “there is nothing down there”.

...[F]airly natural, still... Mostly natural bush, there are not many artificial man-made things; there are few boats, but you don't see lots of anchors, buoys, jetties, houses (RB11, 5-year government staff).

The fact I like it is undeveloped. There is no electricity or proper roads, or street lights, shops, all the things I can have in the civilisation. That's why I go there ... (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner).

Isolation and remoteness

The area offered “isolated experiences” (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff), and was characterised as “remote” by RB1-1 (37-year shack owner), RB1-2 (33-year visitor/partner of shack owner), and RB9 (9-year resident/tourism business owner), owing the snowy mountain peaks when going out in the water (RB20 5-year regular camper). On the contrary, RB20 (5-year regular camper) and RB19 (first-time visitor) disagreed: “it is not isolated, not remote ... There are toilets and rangers. You always know that someone is here if you need any help” (RB19).

A pristine and untouched sense

A campaigner/7-year Far South resident RB5 said the Bay was “pristine and solitary”, while a 26-year resident/3-year tourism business manager RB8 described it as “a beautiful and pristine area that it's one of the last unspoilt areas in Tasmania”. The associated features were the “pristine beach” (RB13, campaigner/7-year visitor) as well as “the white sand, and all the natural bush around, not many buildings, not much development” (RB2, 34-year shack owner). Nevertheless, the past had compromised this character: “it is not a pristine area; it had all been used before” (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner). RB6 (volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff) also supported the view:

I don't think it is pristine at all and I think there is a lot of nonsense talking about it being pristine wilderness. ...when you think back further, when it was firstly developed, there used to be a police station there, a post office, a boat building works. There used to be a coal mine. The whole area has been logged before, the timber; there had been farming out there. It's really been an industrial area from the late 18th century.

For some there was a sense of undisturbed or untouched, indicating “how it would be before white people came to Australia” (RB1-2, 33-year visitor/partner of shack owner). “It still feels untouched even though there was some significant logging that went on 100 years ago, it still feels pristine, especially the northeast Black Swan Lagoon”, claimed by a campaigner/7-year visitor RB13. There was also evidence, for example, “an area on the Northeast Peninsula that had not been disturbed since Labillardiere collected his type specimen of *Eucalyptus globulus* back in 1792” was discovered

according to a campaigner/7-year Far South resident RB5. RB6 (volunteer for Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff) also claimed that people can identify the beach where French met the Aborigines in the drawing; the landscape was a magic place:

... they have this romantic notion of what you look at, untouched wilderness, French expedition, that's exactly the place when d'Entrecasteaux went there... they might be the same sort of forests, but they are not the same trees. People have this romantic notion about the place, which is ill-conceived. This is magic, and I still fell it is a magic place when I go down there.

6.2.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

“Spectacular” was the most frequently chosen atmosphere that portrays the region (52.7% of responses) (Table 6-15). “Natural” was chosen 13.9% of the time and “stunning” 9.0%. There was no difference among the respondents in regard to their stakeholder groups.

Table 6-15 – Atmosphere of the Park

<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>All respondents (n=389)</i>		<i>Local-environmental group members (n=68)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=64)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=13)</i>	
Spectacular	52.7	Spectacular	48.5	Spectacular	64.1	Natural	18.8
Natural	13.9	Natural	20.6	Natural	15.6	Pristine	6.2
Stunning	9.0	Stunning	13.2	Wild	6.2	Peaceful	6.2
Peaceful	6.4	Wild	8.8	Stunning	4.7	Wild	1.0
Other	5.7	Pristine	4.4	Historical	1.6	Spectacular	1.0
Wild	4.6	Peaceful	4.4	Pristine	1.6	Stunning	1.0
Pristine	3.6	Historical	0.0	Peaceful	1.6	Historical	0.0
Historical	1.8	Friendly	0.0	Remote	1.6	Friendly	0.0
Remote	1.3	Remote	0.0	Solitary	1.6	Remote	0.0
Friendly	0.5	Solitary	0.0	Developed	1.6	Solitary	0.0
Solitary	0.3	Developed	0.0	Friendly	0.0	Developed	0.0
Developed	0.3	Other	0.0	Other	0.0	Other	0.0
<i>Local business (n=24)</i>		<i>Local others (n=74)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=124)</i>			
Spectacular	62.5	Spectacular	60.8	Spectacular	52.4		
Natural	16.7	Natural	10.8	Natural	12.1		
Stunning	12.5	Stunning	9.5	Peaceful	10.5		
Pristine	4.2	Peaceful	8.1	Stunning	9.7		
Peaceful	4.2	Wild	4.1	Pristine	4.8		
Historical	0.0	Pristine	2.7	Historical	4.0		
Wild	0.0	Historical	1.4	Wild	3.2		
Friendly	0.0	Friendly	1.4	Remote	2.4		
Remote	0.0	Remote	1.4	Friendly	0.8		
Solitary	0.0	Solitary	0.0	Solitary	0.0		
Developed	0.0	Developed	0.0	Developed	0.0		
Other	0.0	Other	0.0	Other	0.0		

The landscape characteristics respondents identified as having an impact on the atmosphere included “sea-cliffs” (84.1%), “coastline” (83.8%), “ocean scenery” (73.3%) and “beaches” (69.7%) (Table 6-16). In addition to these coastal features, “walking tracks” were chosen by ‘local business’ people and ‘non-local members of

environmental groups’ while ‘local members of environmental groups’ selected “sand dunes”. On the other hand, “forest scenery” and “historic sites” were chosen by ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ with ‘other locals’ and ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ believed that the former feature can impact on the atmosphere.

Table 6-16 – Characteristics of the Park that contribute to the atmosphere

<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>All respondents (n=389)</i>		<i>Local-environmental group members (n=70)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=67)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
Sea-cliffs	84.1	Coastline	94.3	Coastline	89.6	Sea-cliffs	93.8
Coastline	83.8	Sea-cliffs	91.4	Sea-cliffs	85.1	Coastline	93.8
Ocean scenery	73.3	Ocean scenery	84.3	Ocean scenery	73.1	Ocean scenery	93.8
Beaches	69.7	Beaches	82.9	Forest scenery	70.1	Beaches	81.2
Forest	59.4	Sand dunes	74.3	Beaches	59.7	Forest scenery	56.2
Ocean sounds	58.1	Ocean sounds	72.9	Walking tracks	52.2	Historic sites	56.2
Walking tracks	50.6	Forest scenery	72.9	Ocean sounds	49.3	Lookouts	56.2
Sand dunes	46.8	Ocean smells	62.9	Sand dunes	49.3	Ocean sounds	50.0
Ocean smells	45.8	Hills	60.0	Forest smells	43.3	Walking tracks	50.0
Forest smell	43.2	Walking tracks	58.6	Ocean smells	40.3	Boats	43.8
Hills	36.0	Forest smells	55.7	Hills	38.8	Ocean smells	37.5
Lookouts	35.7	a.Grass plains	45.7	Lookouts	32.8	Hills	31.2
a.Grass plains	25.2	Lookouts	38.6	Historic sites	28.4	Forest smells	31.2
Historic sites	24.4	Historic sites	18.6	a.Grass plains	26.9	Camp fires	31.2
Campsites	19.8	Campsites	12.9	Campsites	11.9	Campsites	31.2
Camp fire	15.7	c.Info signs	8.6	b.Tables&toilets	9.0	Jetties	31.2
Jetties	11.8	Camp fires	11.4	c.Info signs	9.0	a.Grass plains	26.9
Boats	11.1	Jetties	5.7	Others	9.0	Sand dunes	25.0
b.Tables&toilets	8.7	b.Tables&toilets	5.7	Camp fires	6.0	Car park	12.5
Other	7.2	Boats	4.3	Car park	6.0	b.Tables&toilets	12.5
c.Info signs	6.7	Car park	2.9	Boats	6.0	c.Info signs	6.2
Car park	5.1	Others	2.9	Jetties	3.0	Others	6.2
<i>Local business (n=26)</i>		<i>Local others (n=80)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=130)</i>			
Sea-cliffs	88.5	Sea-cliffs	85.0	Sea-cliffs	76.9	a. Button grass plains	
Coastline	80.8	Coastline	82.5	Coastline	75.4	b. Picnic tables & toilets	
Beaches	76.9	Beaches	67.5	Ocean scenery	72.3	c. Information signs	
Ocean sounds	61.5	Ocean scenery	66.2	Beaches	66.2		
Ocean scenery	57.7	Forest scenery	52.5	Ocean sounds	60.8		
Walking tracks	57.7	Ocean sounds	48.8	Forest scenery	53.1		
Ocean smells	53.8	Walking tracks	45.0	Walking tracks	47.7		
Sand dunes	53.8	Forest smells	42.5	Ocean smells	45.4		
Forest scenery	50.0	Sand dunes	40.0	Forest smells	38.5		
Lookouts	50.0	Lookouts	37.5	Sand dunes	36.2		
Forest smells	42.3	Ocean smells	35.0	Lookouts	29.2		
a.Grass plains	30.8	Hills	31.2	Hills	26.2		
Hills	30.8	Campsites	23.8	Campsites	25.4		
Historic sites	23.1	Historic sites	23.8	Camp fires	23.1		
Jetties	19.2	a.Grass plains	18.8	Historic sites	22.3		
Boats	19.2	Camp fires	13.8	a.Grass plains	18.5		
Others	15.4	Jetties	12.5	Jetties	15.4		
Camp fires	11.5	Boats	12.5	Boats	10.8		
Campsites	11.5	b.Tables&toilets	8.8	b.Tables&toilets	10.0		
b.Tables&toilets	7.7	Others	7.5	Others	6.9		
Car park	3.8	c.Info signs	6.2	Car park	5.4		
c.Info signs	3.8	Car park	5.0	c.Info signs	5.4		

Interview analysis

A sense of peace, relaxation, and quietness

Terms such as “quiet”, “relaxing” and “peaceful” appeared in many conversations. For example, a 20-year regular camper at Fortescue Bay TNP14 described it as “quiet, relaxed, and isolated”. This was also the case for some Peninsula residents (TNP9, 10-year resident and TNP5, 50-year resident/local business owner). TNP3 (12-year resident/local business manager) said:

I just love the area. It is away from town, away from all the traffic and noise. Other than in the busy tourist season, it is generally nice and quiet in winter when there are not many tourists around and there is no one on the beach.

The winter weather that slowed visitation was valued by some locals: “It’s cold, but it is good. I like that (no visitors). I like the place for myself” (TNP9, 10-year resident).

Similarly, being in the Park away from others was appreciated:

It is great that we have such large areas where you can walk and really not see other people. It is a fantastic thing. You can get away from everybody and see what is pretty much, completely natural forest and bushland (TNP5, 50-year resident/local business owner).

A beautiful and spectacular place

Most interviewees depicted the Park as “beautiful”. TNP4 (18-year resident/local business owner) said: “It (the Park) is one of the magically beautiful places on the earth and it needs to be environmentally and tactfully managed”. Specific spots and landscape elements contributed to its beauty. TNP5 said, “That headland (in Crescent Bay) ... has the outlook, large areas of sea-cliffs and magnificent beaches. It is a piece of unrivalled and boundless beauty”. “Tasman Island, I have spent some time there and it is a fantastic spot, just a beautiful place”, according to TNP7 (7-year resident/government staff member). TNP16 (44-year non-local regular bushwalker) was impressed by the wildflowers:

Walking out to Cape Pillar in November is just absolutely stunning because of the wildflowers that are out at that particular time of the year. You walk through this huge garden ... It is just absolutely beautiful, gorgeous.

Others thought Fortescue Bay a beautiful place to visit (TNP10, 33-year regular camper, and TNP13, 10-year regular camper). TNP9, 10-year resident shared her view:

Fortescue Bay is very special. I remembered the first time I went down there. The wave was completely beautiful; there was just one wave all along the beach that strikes me to see the wave so long. The wave was completely beautiful; there was just one wave all along the beach.

The region was portrayed as “spectacular”, especially the coastline and sea cliffs. TNP16 (44-year non-local regular bushwalker) spoke of “sea cliffs, which are absolutely magnificent”, while TNP3 (10-year resident/local business owner) felt the same way: “It is magnificent coastline and it is really spectacular... I see it 200 days in a year... I see the same rocks, cliffs, same coves. I still like looking at it”. More specific sites were mentioned, such as Crescent Bay: “the spectacular scenery rivals anything in

the world” (TNP5, 50-year resident/local business owner). A 10-year resident TNP9 said: “I also like to walk up Waterfall Bay Road back along the coastal track. It is spectacular”. The opportunity of observing sea eagles also contributed: “we often see sea eagles just down the front there; it’s spectacular to see them” (TNP2 4-year resident/local business staff). The scale of the sea cliffs was regarded as striking:

..., [P]articularly on the southern part of the Park, like the Shipstern Bluff, it is the most amazing place. On the one hand, it doesn’t seem particularly spectacular, but it is something about it, energetically, the scale of it. When you get down underneath those cliffs and next to those boulders as big as rooms which have been shifted by the ocean on the edge of the ocean that is incredibly moving (TNP15, 17-year irregular visitor/government staff).

Wild and harsh atmosphere

Some interviewees were attracted by and had memories of harsh weather.

One year we had a big storm, the wave was really really high, really big. When you looked at the beach, they were over the cliffs, and we were surfing in that using a single air mattress. I won’t let my kids do that (TNP11, 32-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

I remember I was walking there one day and the wind was 40 or 50 knots and hitting the cliffs and it was raining and the rain was going up and not down. It is wild (TNP16, 44-year non-local regular bushwalker).

The weather also played a significant role in the bushwalking experience:

I love the plants, the harshness of the climate. I like the weather to be harsh and violent. That makes you feel very humble and small. You need to feel that. In the modern world, it is easy for you to think that you can control everything. So, you need to go to the bush and get some balance in your life... gain a sense of refreshment, spirituality and renewal (TNP8, 25-year non-local visitor).

Just being out there, being a part of it, soaking it up, is the greatest thing, and then become part of you, re-connecting. It is like going to the church, re-connecting to God. There is a spiritual dimension to it (TNP16, 44-year non-local regular bushwalker).

Natural and undeveloped feeling

The natural character was appreciated by a first-time overseas visitor to Fortescue Bay, TNP12, who commented: “We hope to keep it natural in the future. It is a little far away from the road. I think it is nice to keep it natural”. TNP5 (50-year resident/local business owner) valued the “completely natural forest and bushland”. The ocean cliffs impressed 25-year non-local visitor TNP8, who depicted the Park as “ancient” due to the geology and dolerite columns. TNP3 (10-year resident/local business owner) said:

Part of the attraction of the boating down here is the environment; it is just so natural. ... From the boat, generally you can look at the cliffs and say that is exactly the way they saw it 200 years ago or anyone who was here thousands of years ago.

“There is nothing there that indicates inhabitants anywhere and I think that is a great thing... It is just all bushes, cliffs and sea”, commented TNP3 (12-year resident/local business manager). That there were “no buildings at all” and parts “can only be accessed by walking” created an “un-spoilt” feeling, which should be maintained because this is what tourists came for (TNP2, 4-year resident/local business staff). Due to the fact that there was “no walking track between Cape Raoul and Nubeena”, 7-year resident/government staff member TNP7 portrayed the Park as a place that encompassed “a sense of undeveloped” and “a sense of low-key”. This status was special to TNP5 (50-year resident/local business owner):

I’ve lived in Cambridge for three years. I went to University there. I think Cambridge is probably the most beautiful place in the world. But Tasman has its advantages because you can look up to the hills and they are unsettled and there aren’t houses, there is natural bush, and there are places where you feel in these parts that feet haven’t trod before you. That is a very special feeling. It is an ancient bushland and undeveloped. I feel sad when development is allowed in areas ... previously undeveloped. That is something that is important to me.

Remoteness

Two government staff described their feelings:

It is easy to get a sense of remoteness even in a place like Tasman Arch when you go to the lookout and look down the coast, the ocean, the wilderness, the cliffs, just a sense of how remote it is even though it is so close to some built up areas. ... It is the last patch of land before we head down to the South. Especially when you walk out to Cape Pillar or Cape Raoul and Cape Hauy, it is land jutting out into the ocean. It gives me a sense of remoteness (TNP7, 7-year resident/government staff member).

I took two visitors... they feel it more wild than being in the Hartz Mountains National Park. It is something about being on the edge of the ocean that makes the experience feel they are much more confronted with the wilderness of nature, than what they experienced in the Hartz Mountains National Park. I heard that and knew what they were talking about (TNP15, non-local visitor/government staff).

6.3 Special places and preferred places for protection and tourism development

This section presents the places that respondents identified as special, as well as the places preferred for tourism developments and protection from tourism developments. Similarities and differences between stakeholder groups were also analysed.

6.3.1 Recherche Bay

Out of the 314 survey respondents, 278 respondents completed this section. Most of the locations identified as being special were in the reserve system, including ‘South Coast Track’ (39.6%), ‘Fishers Point’ (33.1%) and ‘the beach near the Cockle Creek’ (26.3%), while 11.9% thought there was no special place (Figure 6.1). Some of these special spots corresponded to the locations identified for exclusion from future development, for example, ‘Southwest National Park’ (34.5%) and ‘Fishers Point’ (25.2%). On the other hand, most popular sites respondent thought suitable for future tourism developments were located on private lands, such as ‘private property in Moss Glen’ (14.7%). Notably, 62.9% of the respondents believed there was no place suitable for future tourism developments whereas 7.6% of them supposed no spot in the Bay should be prohibited from future development. An aversion to the proposed eco-lodge development was also discovered, for 42.8% indicated the location should be prohibited from future tourism developments with only 6.8% thought it suitable for future tourism developments.

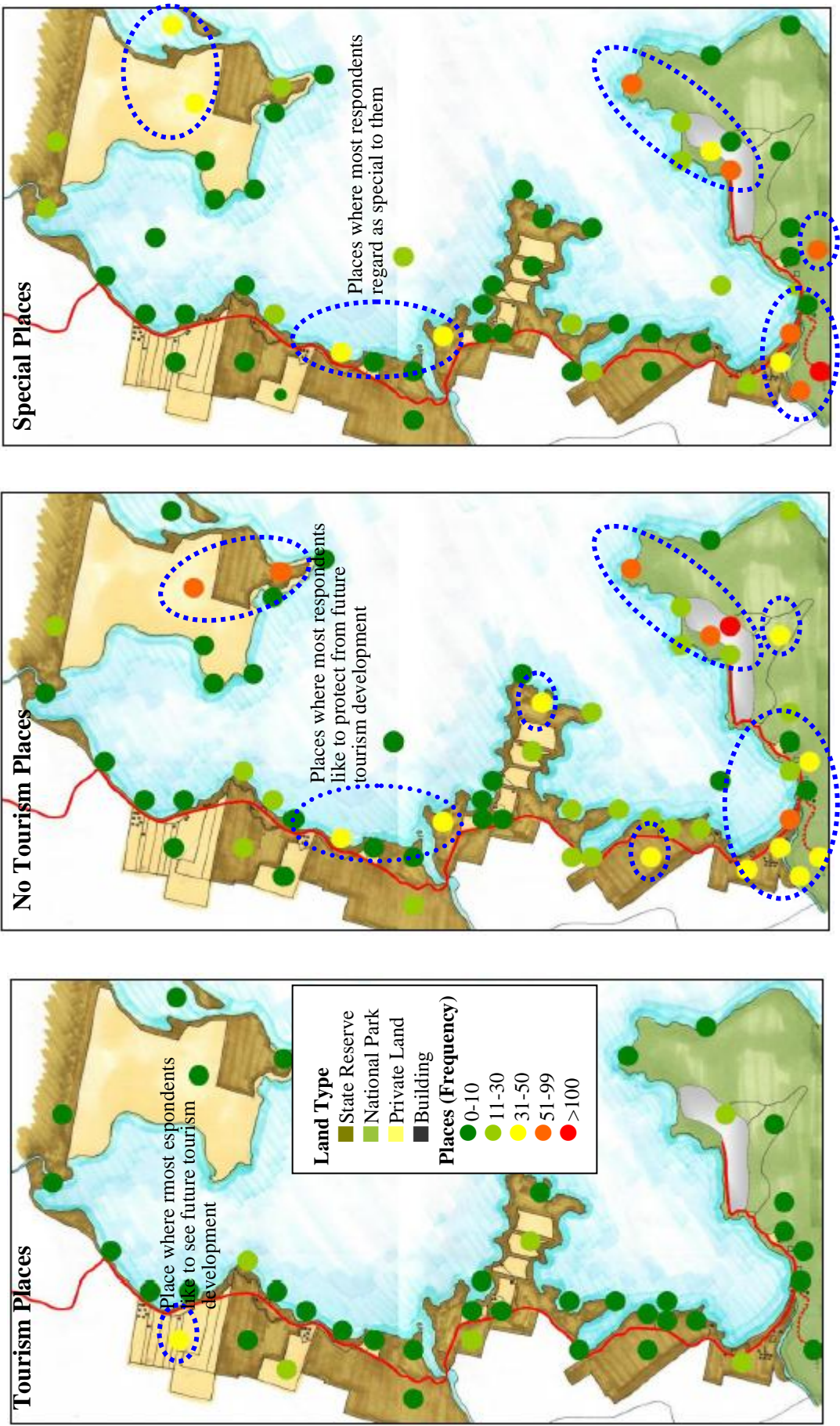


Figure 6.1 –Comparison of special places and preferred places for protection and tourism development in the Bay.

6.3.2 Tasman National Park

Over 40% of the 382 respondents to the relevant survey questions thought Fortescue Bay special, while 41.6% specified Cape Hauy, and 39.0% Crescent Bay. These were also the preferred places for exclusion of development: Fortescue Bay (35.3%), Crescent Bay (31.4%), and Cape Raoul (27.7%). Except Fortescue Bay, these sites are located in the Natural Zone (Figure 6.2), which are relatively remote regions within the Park. Most popular locations identified as suitable for developments were outside the Park, such as Port Arthur (25.9%), Nubeena (19.4%), and Taranna (14.1%). Some preferred sites were in the Visitor Service Zone in the Park, including White Beach (22.8%), Eaglehawk Neck (12.8%), and Fortescue Bay (11.3%). Thirty-four per cent of people felt no place in the Park was suitable. On the other hand, 13.9% thought no place in the Park should be prohibited, while 5.0% considered there was no special place in the Park. For the proposed overnight nodes on the Three Capes Track, only 1-3.1% regarded them as suitable. The percentage of those who preferred to see these five locations prohibited from future tourism developments ranged from 10.0% to 23.8%.

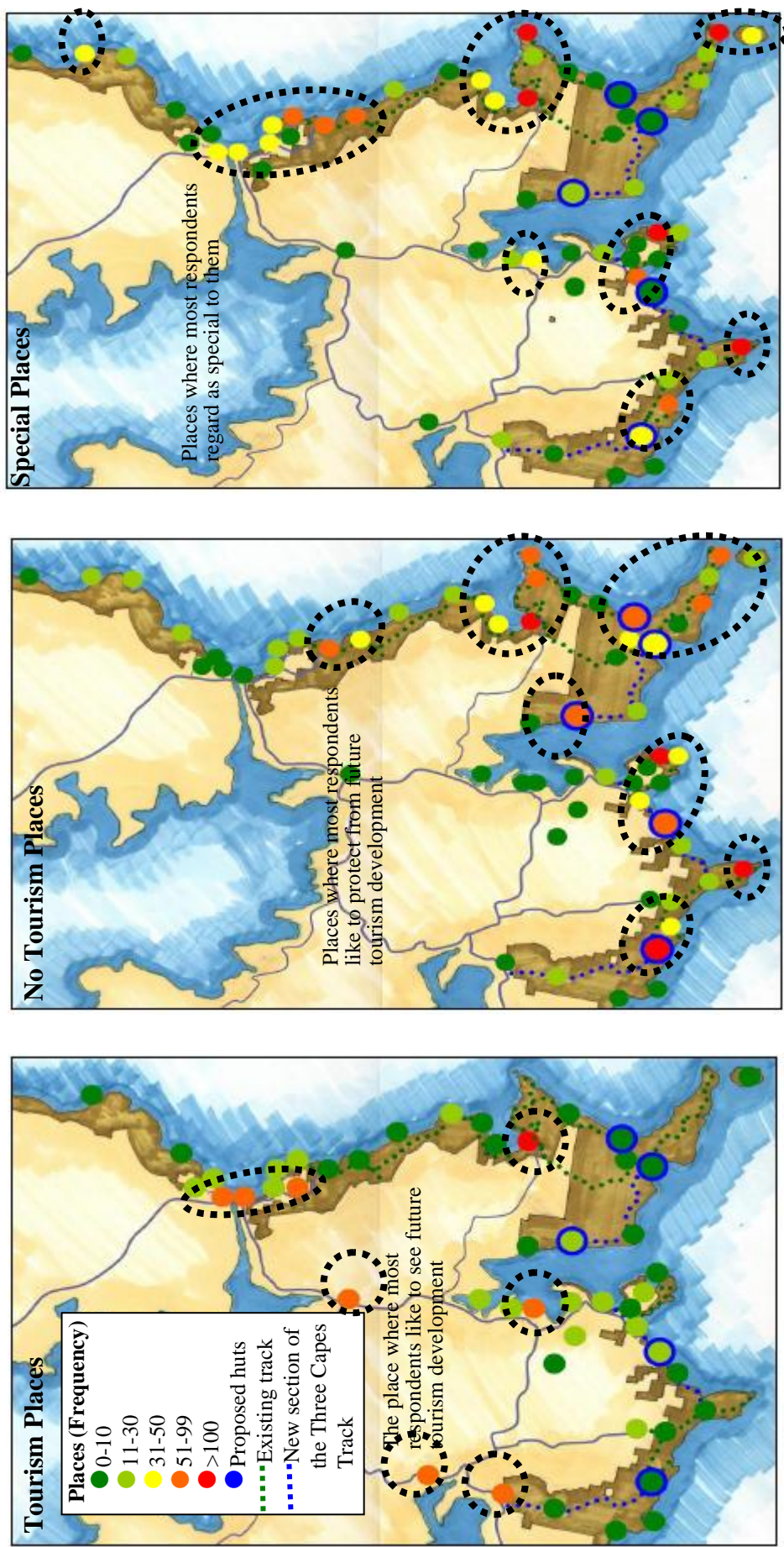


Figure 6.2 –Comparison of special places and preferred places for protection and tourism development in the Park.

6.4 Analysis of the place attachment scale

Factor analysis was applied to the items of the scale (Section 4.3.4) to identify the underlying constructs associated with sense of place. Similarities and differences in scores of each item were also examined. T-tests were used to identify any significant differences in scores between my two case studies. The relationships between stakeholder groups and their place attachment were also examined. Based on the results of the factor analysis, variables correlated with place attachment were then identified.

6.4.1 Factor analysis of the place attachment scale

Prior to performing principle component analysis, the reliability of the scale was examined by checking its internal consistency. The results show good internal consistency of the scale, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of 0.96 for the Bay and 0.92 for the Park. The suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed by generating a correlation matrix of variables to inspect that the variables have reasonable correlations with some other variables in the analysis. Inspection of the correlations matrix illustrates the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above for both sites. As a general rule, it is desirable to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001), and my data satisfies this requirement.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.95 for the Bay and 0.93 for the Park, both beyond the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974). The Bartlett (1954) Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p=.000$) for both study sites. This supports the factorability of the correlation matrix. Parallel analysis showed only one component with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (Bay 14 variables×314 respondents; Park 14 variables×401 respondents) (Table 6-17). However, for the Bay, principal component analysis reveals the presence of two components with eigenvalues more than one, explaining a total of 73.3%, with 64.6% and 8.7% of the variance respectively. With regards to the Park, principle component analysis also indicates the presence of two components with eigenvalues more than one, explaining a total of 61.5% with 50.1% and 11.4% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the screeplot indicates a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, two components were determined. To aid in the interpretation of these two components, Oblimin rotation was performed. The results of the rotation present the pattern of loadings. Variables with similar loadings

were reclassified into the same factor. The rotated solution illustrates the presence of a simple structure (Thurstone 1974) with both components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component (Table 6-18).

Table 6-17 –Comparison of eigenvalues from principal component analysis and criterion values from parallel analysis for the place attachment scale

Study site	Component number	Actual eigenvalue from principle component analysis	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
Recherche Bay	1	9.038	1.3692	Accept
	2	1.222	1.2881	Reject
	3	0.707	1.2216	Reject
	4	0.441	1.1630	Reject
	5	0.429	1.1112	Reject
Tasman National Park	1	7.008	1.3311	Accept
	2	1.601	1.2532	Accept
	3	0.874	1.1946	Reject
	4	0.755	1.1422	Reject
	5	0.562	1.0962	Reject

Table 6-18 –Pattern and structure matrix for principal component analysis with Oblimin Rotation of two-factor solution for the place attachment scale

Study site	Item label of place attachment scale	Pattern coefficients		Structure coefficients		Communalities
		Component 1	Component 2	Component 1	Component 2	
Recherche Bay	D3	0.921	-0.057	0.885	0.518	0.786
	D1	0.844	-0.058	0.808	0.469	0.655
	S2	0.808	-0.069	0.765	0.435	0.588
	S1	0.794	0.041	0.820	0.536	0.673
	D2	0.747	0.210	0.878	0.676	0.798
	D4	0.734	0.182	0.848	0.641	0.739
	A2	0.723	0.162	0.824	0.613	0.696
	A4	0.449	0.550	0.792	0.830	0.813
	I2	0.389	0.618	0.775	0.861	0.833
	I3	0.303	0.554	0.649	0.744	0.609
	A1	0.226	0.693	0.659	0.834	0.727
	I1	0.185	0.784	0.675	0.900	0.831
	I4	0.115	0.819	0.627	0.891	0.802
	A3	-0.235	0.970	0.370	0.823	0.711
Tasman National Park	I4	0.890	-0.065	0.856	0.397	0.736
	A3	0.838	-0.154	0.758	0.280	0.592
	A1	0.816	0.007	0.820	0.430	0.672
	I1	0.766	0.136	0.836	0.533	0.713
	I2	0.726	0.199	0.829	0.575	0.717
	A4	0.697	0.243	0.822	0.604	0.719
	I3	0.447	0.288	0.596	0.519	0.416
	D4	0.263	0.598	0.573	0.734	0.590
	D2	0.203	0.704	0.568	0.810	0.686
	S2	0.139	0.531	0.414	0.602	0.377
	D1	0.120	0.690	0.478	0.752	0.577
	D3	0.006	0.786	0.414	0.789	0.623
	A2	-0.012	0.791	0.398	0.785	0.616
	S1	-0.208	0.846	0.230	0.738	0.576

Note. Major loadings for each item are bolded.

The outcomes of the principal component analysis for both study sites determined a two-factor solution for the scale. Based on the content of the items within each factor, I labelled the factors as *emotional* and *functional attachment* (Table 6-19). The internal consistency of the items under the two factors was also examined. The reliability coefficient for the seven items under the *emotional attachment* is 0.94 for the Bay and 0.91 for the Park. The results also show good internal consistency for the seven items

under the *functional attachment*, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of 0.93 for the Bay and 0.87 for the Park. There was a strong positive correlation between the two factors ($r=0.62$ RB; 0.52 TNP). The interpretation of these two factors is considered in detail in Chapter 8.

Table 6-19 – Results of the factor analysis of the place attachment scale

Item Label and Variables	
<i>Emotional attachment</i>	
A1	I am very attached to the place.
I4	The place means a lot to me.
A3	I have little, if any, emotional attachment to the place.
I1	I identify strongly with the place.
I2	I feel the place is a part of me.
A4	I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place.
I3	Visiting the place says a lot about who I am.
<i>Functional attachment</i>	
D4	Many of my friends / family prefer the place over other sites.
D1	For the recreation activities that I enjoy most, the place is the best place.
A2	I enjoy visiting the place more than other places.
D3	I prefer the place over other places for the recreational activities that I enjoy.
D2	For what I like to do, I could not imagine anything better than the place.
S1	My friends /family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places.
S2	If I were to stop visiting the place, I would lose contact with a number of friends.

6.4.2 Overview of place attachment scale

The mean scores for most items in the scale were above three. This shows that most respondents expressed positive attachments (Table 6-20). The two items which received the highest scores were:

- I am very attached to the place.
- The place means a lot to me.

The items that obtained scores less than three were:

- My friends /family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places.
- If I were to stop visiting the place, I would lose contact with a number of friends.

Most *emotional attachment* scores were higher for the Park than the Bay. On the other hand, a majority of the *functional attachment* scores for the Bay were higher. The results of t-tests further reveal a significant difference between the two sites in the following items:

- I am very attached to the place ($p=.003$).
- The place means a lot to me ($p=.002$).
- I have little, if any, emotional attachment to the place ($p=.000$).
- I identify strongly with the place ($p=.001$).
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place ($p=.014$).
- My friends /family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places ($p=.004$).

The implications of these results are discussed in Section 8.4.

Table 6-20 – Results of t-test on the place attachment scale

Variables	RB (n=264)		TNP (n=376)		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<i>Emotional sense of place</i>					
I am very attached to the place.	3.95	1.1	4.19	1.08	-2.946 **
The place means a lot to me.	3.89	1.2	4.11	0.97	-3.137 **
I have little, if any, emotional attachment to the place.	3.67	1.4	3.95	1.14	-3.633 ***
I identify strongly with the place.	3.69	1.3	3.95	1.1	-3.404 **
I feel the place is a part of me.	3.29	1.4	3.5	1.33	-1.724
I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place.	3.2	1.3	3.43	1.25	-2.467 *
Visiting the place says a lot about who I am.	3.39	1.4	3.3	1.32	1.341
<i>Functional sense of place</i>					
Many of my friends/family prefer the place over other sites.	3.73	1.8	3.88	1.71	-1.239
For the recreation activities that I enjoy most, the place is the best place.	3.74	1.4	3.81	1.28	-.936
I enjoy visiting the place more than other places.	3.42	1.3	3.3	1.14	1.232
I prefer the place over other places for the recreational activities that I enjoy.	3.27	1.3	3.24	1.18	0.169
For what I like to do, I could not imagine anything better than the place.	3.27	1.4	3.16	1.16	0.875
My friends/family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places.	2.59	1.6	2.38	1.49	2.886 **
If I were to stop visiting the place, I would lose contact with a number of friends.	2.37	1.5	2.26	1.41	1.388

The means in bold were the higher scores between Recherche Bay (RB) and Tasman National Park (TNP)
 *p≤.05, **p≤.01, ***p≤.001

6.4.3 Relationships between stakeholder groups and place attachment

Various methods were employed to identify whether different groups of stakeholders vary in their *place attachment*. First, mean factor scores for *emotional* and *functional attachment* are presented (Table 6-21). For the Bay, local non-business people and non-local visitors showed an *emotional attachment*, while other stakeholder groups felt little or none. On the other hand, local business people and local non-business people felt a *functional attachment*, whereas the other three groups indicated little or none. In the case of the Park, an *emotional attachment* was found among local non-business and local business people with others revealing little or no *emotional attachment*. The analysis also illustrates that local business people and local environmental group members expressed a *functional attachment*, in contrast with other stakeholder groups.

Table 6-21 – Mean scores for the *emotional* and *functional attachment*

Variables		Recherche Bay			Tasman National Park		
		N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
<i>Emotional attachment</i>							
Local community	Local businesses	8	-0.10	0.93	19	0.66	1.20
	Non-business locals	19	0.93	1.06	50	0.39	1.07
	Environmental groups Others				61	0.03	1.01
Non-local visitors		148	0.05	0.96	113	-0.09	0.94
Non-local members of environmental groups		43	-0.45	0.75	54	-0.37	0.78
Tasmanian Government staff		8	-0.68	1.21	15	-0.30	0.87
<i>Functional attachment</i>							
Local community	Local businesses	9	0.05	0.89	23	0.59	0.86
	Non-business locals	23	0.83	1.03	62	0.48	0.93
	Environmental groups Others				65	-0.15	0.94
Non-local visitors		154	-0.08	0.97	114	-0.16	1.05
Non-local members of environmental groups		47	-0.13	0.96	61	-0.18	0.87
Tasmanian Government staff		8	-0.21	1.06	15	-0.22	1.04

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to test if different groups of stakeholders vary in their place attachment. The significance value for Levene's test showed that the assumption of variance homogeneity was not violated (Pallant 2007). Amongst various stakeholder groups, there was a statistically significant difference in scores on both dimensions of *place attachment* (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.003$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.004$) (Table 6-22). The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test proves a significant divergence in the *emotional attachment* between:

Bay

- local community ($M=0.62$, $SD=1.12$) and non-local visitors ($M=0.05$, $SD=0.96$);
- local community and non-local environmental group members ($M=-0.45$, $SD=0.75$);
- non-local visitors and non-local members of environmental groups;
- local community and Tasmanian Government staff ($M=-0.68$, $SD=1.21$).

Park

- local community ($M=0.26$, $SD=1.08$) and non-local visitors ($M=-0.09$, $SD=0.94$);
- local community and non-local environmental group members ($M=-0.37$, $SD=0.78$);
- Tasmanian Government staff ($M=-0.30$, $SD=0.87$) and non-local visitors.

Table 6-22 – One-way ANOVAs for effects of variables on emotional and functional attachments

Variable and source	<i>Emotional attachment</i>				<i>Functional attachment</i>			
	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>RB stakeholder groups</i>								
Between groups	23.16	3	7.72	8.49***	13.80	3	4.60	4.82**
Within groups	201.85	222	0.91		226.20	237	0.95	
<i>TNP stakeholder groups</i>								
Between groups	18.36	3	6.12	6.44***	13.249	3	4.416	4.56**
Within groups	292.64	308	0.95		325.751	336	0.969	

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

More details were revealed by confidence interval (CI) analysis, where 'local community' for the Bay was divided into 'local business' and 'local non-business' people; Park 'local community' was separated into 'local business', 'local members of environmental groups', and 'other locals'. Figure 6.3 illustrates a significant distinction between:

Bay

- non-business locals and non-local visitors;
- non-business locals and non-local members of environmental groups;
- non-local visitors and non-local members of environmental groups.

Park

- non-business locals and non-local visitors;
- non-business locals and non-local members of environmental groups.

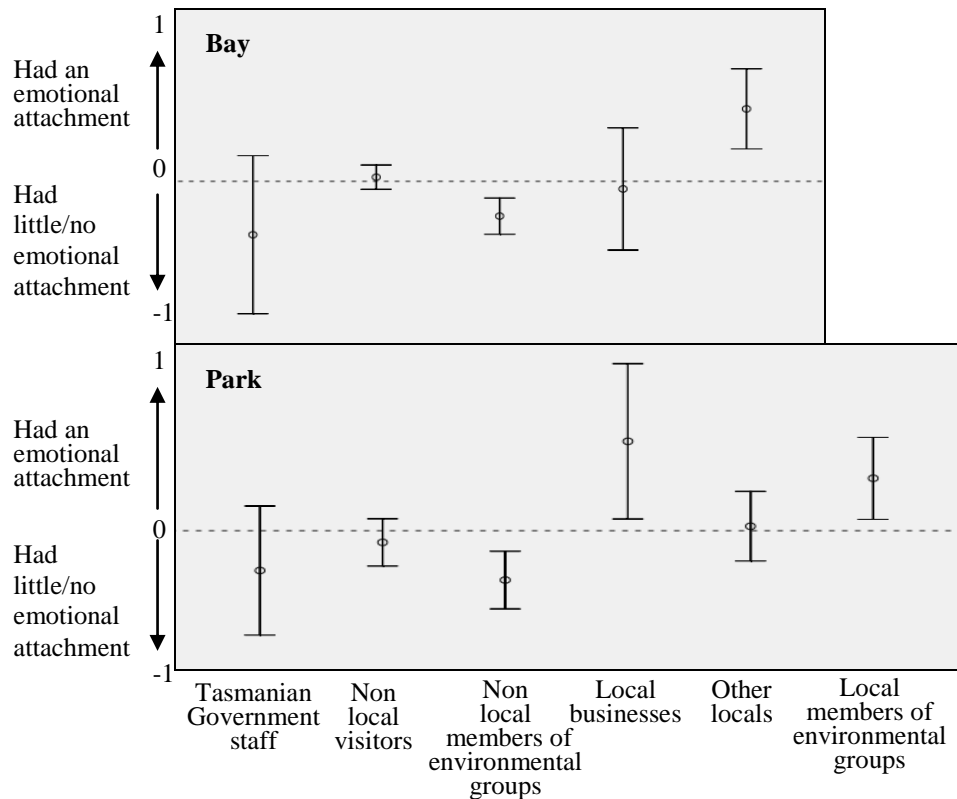


Figure 6.3 – CIs of *emotional attachment* in relation to stakeholder groups

For *functional attachment*, the post-hoc comparison points out a significant difference between:

Bay

- local community ($M=0.61$, $SD=1.04$) and non-local visitors ($M=-0.08$, $SD=0.97$);
- local community and non-local environmental group members ($M=-.13$, $SD=.96$).

Park

- local community ($M=0.22$, $SD=0.97$) and non-local visitors ($M=-0.16$, $SD=1.05$);
- local community and non-local environmental group members ($M=-0.18$, $SD=0.87$).

More detail was identified by CI analysis. Figure 6.4 demonstrates significant divergences between:

Bay

- non-business locals and non-local visitors;
- non-business locals and non-local members of environmental groups.

Park

- local businesses and non-local visitors;
- local businesses and non-local members of environmental groups;
- local businesses and other locals;
- local environmental group members and non-local visitors;
- local environmental group members and non-local members of environmental groups;
- local environmental group members and other locals.

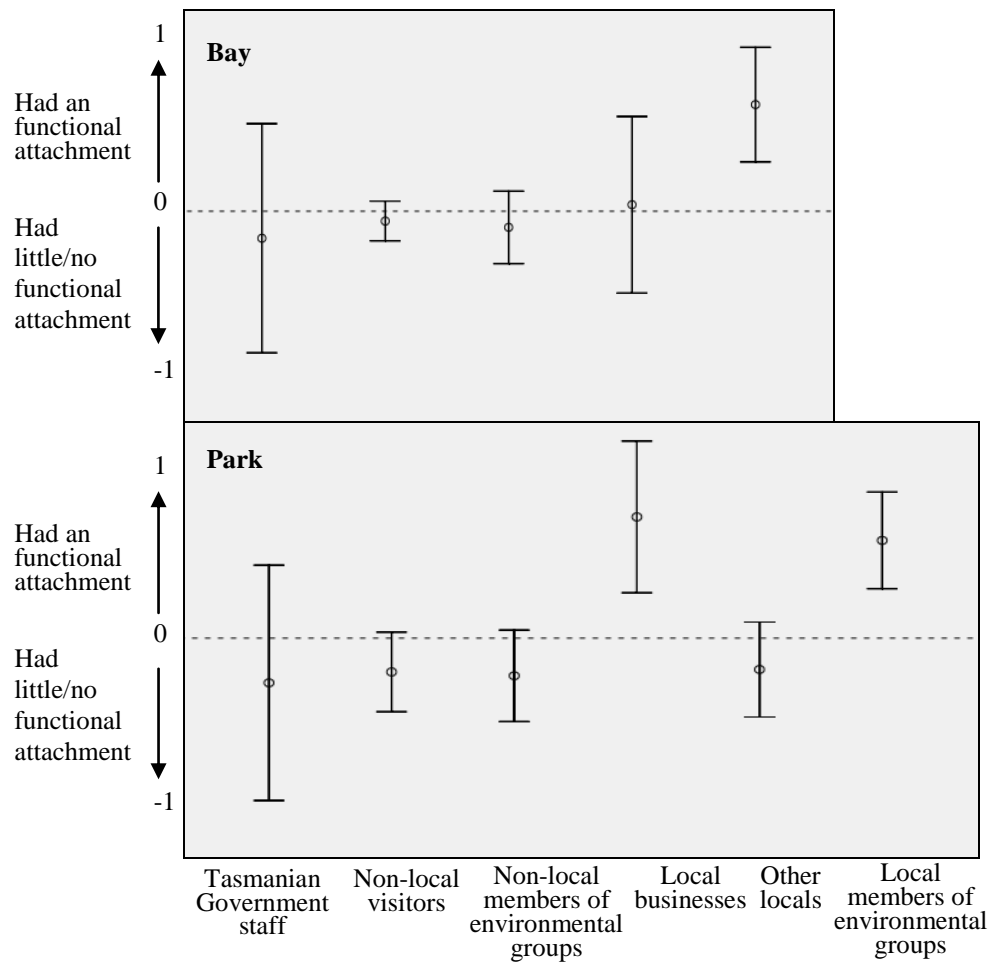


Figure 6.4 –CIs of *functional attachment* in relation to stakeholder groups

The differences among three environmental groups for the Park were revealed by CI analysis (Figure 6-5). Tasmanian Conservation Trust (TCT) members express little or no *place attachment*. Local Peninsula Environmental Network (PEN) members felt both *emotional* and *functional attachment*. Tasmanian National Parks Association (TNPA) members had a *functional attachment*, but conveyed little or no *emotional attachment*. Of the three environmental groups, there was a significant difference in both dimensions of *place attachment* between members of TCT and PEN.

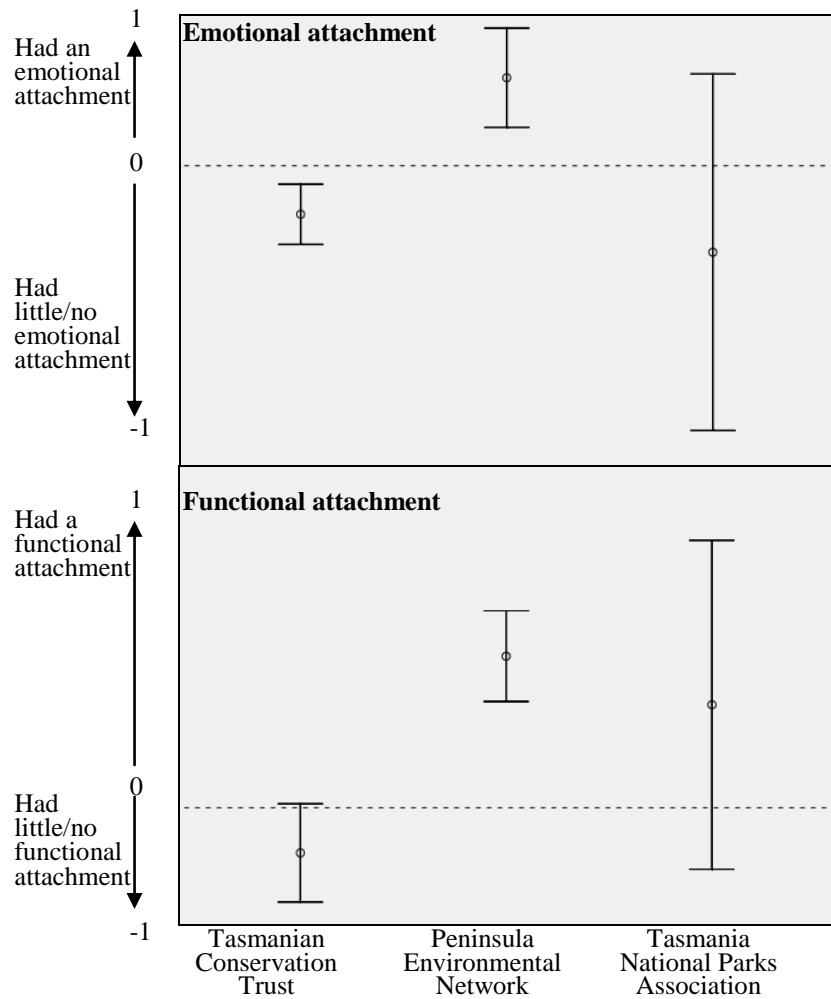


Figure 6.5 – CIs of *emotional and functional attachment* in relation to three environmental groups

6.4.4 Correlating variables of emotional and functional attachment

Factor scores were calculated (SPSS) to facilitate the identification of determinants of *place attachment*. Factor scores are estimates of the scores subjects would have allocated to both dimensions of *place attachment* had they been assessed directly (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001). Nominal variables that might influence *place attachment* were analysed by t-tests with one-way ANOVAs for ordinal and ratio scale variables. For one-way ANOVAs, the significance value of Levene's test for was again used (Pallant 2007). If there was significant difference, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test was adopted to indicate where the differences occurred. On the other hand, if the data did not meet the homogeneity of variances assumption, the Games Howell post-hoc test was used. The results are summarised in Table 6-23 and Table 6-24, and their implications are discussed in Chapter 8.

Table 6-23 – One-way ANOVAs for effects of variables on place attachment, Recherche Bay

<i>Variable and source</i>	<i>Emotional attachment</i>				<i>Functional attachment</i>			
	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>Socio-economic backgrounds</i>								
<i>Age</i>								
Between groups	5.57	2	2.79	2.94	5.18	2	2.59	2.74
Within groups	202.43	214	0.95		217.28	230	0.95	
<i>Level of education completed</i>								
Between groups	28.18	2	14.09	15.82 ***	11.319	2	5.66	5.89 *
Within groups	189.68	213	0.89		220.04	229	0.96	
<i>Connection with the Bay</i>								
<i>Length of property ownership</i>								
Between groups	0.53	2	0.27	1.27	0.03	2	0.01	0.27
Within groups	1.87	9	0.21		0.56	11	0.05	
<i>Familiarity with the Bay</i>								
<i>Total frequency of visitation</i>								
Between groups	59.59	3	19.86	27.04 ***	60.59	3	20.20	28.15 ***
Within groups	157.21	214	0.74		163.57	228	0.72	
<i>Total length of visitation</i>								
Between groups	11.21	2	5.60	5.71 **	32.46	2	16.23	18.97 ***
Within groups	209.14	213	0.98		194.22	227	0.86	
<i>Total frequency of visitation in the past one year</i>								
Between groups	67.45	3	22.48	31.28 ***	54.29	3	18.10	23.39 ***
Within groups	156.67	218	0.72		179.48	232	0.77	
<i>Interaction with the Bay</i>								
<i>Number of companion</i>								
Between groups	43.97	3	14.66	18.02 ***	25.26	3	8.42	9.56 ***
Within groups	172.43	212	0.81		199.15	226	0.88	
<i>Length of each visitation</i>								
Between groups	42.70	2	21.35	25.51 ***	29.05	2	14.52	16.35 ***
Within groups	180.79	216	0.84		204.30	230	0.89	
<i>Perceptions of tourism impacts</i>								
<i>Degree of change</i>								
Between groups	2.48	2	1.24	1.23	2.13	2	1.07	1.41
Within groups	163.85	163	1.01		129.65	171	0.76	
<i>Degree of influence on the atmosphere</i>								
Between groups	0.58	2	0.29	0.29	1.99	2	0.99	1.29
Within groups	157.56	157	1.00		125.84	164	0.77	
<i>Degree of influence on the attraction of the place</i>								
Between groups	1.42	2	0.71	0.69	1.34	2	0.67	0.75
Within groups	176.99	171	1.04		158.72	178	0.89	
<i>Anticipated degree of influence on the atmosphere</i>								
Between groups	2.85	2	1.43	1.44	9.31	2	4.66	4.99 **
Within groups	208.05	210	0.99		209.17	224	0.93	

* p≤.05, **p≤.01, ***p≤.001

Table 6-24 –T-test for effects of variables on *place attachment*, Recherche Bay

<i>Dependent variable</i>			<i>Emotional attachment</i>			<i>Functional attachment</i>		
<i>Independent variable (Stakeholders' backgrounds)</i>			<i>Mean factor score</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>Mean factor score</i>		<i>t</i>
<i>Socio-economic backgrounds</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>		<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>	
Gender	Female	Male	0.10	-0.14	1.77	0.06	-0.09	1.14
Employment	Tourism related	Not tourism related	0.12	-0.01	0.50	0.20	-0.02	0.95
<i>Connection with Bay</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
OwnersProperty	Have property	Have no property	1.06	-0.09	4.28***	0.80	-1.10	4.32***
hip House	Have a house	Have no house	0.34	0.73	2.90*	1.52	0.71	3.12**
Shack	Have a shack	Have no shack	1.09	1.70	-1.58	0.76	1.52	-3.07**
Land	Have land	Have no land	0.33	0.87	1.27	1.30	0.78	1.03
Birthplace	Australia	Overseas	0.11	-0.45	4.26***	0.07	-0.33	2.50*
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.35	-0.26	4.40***	0.29	-0.26	3.88***
	Far South	Tasmania outside Far South	1.01	0.01	4.11***	0.61	0.02	2.48*
Residence	Australia	Overseas	-0.01	-0.20	0.27	0.00	-0.72	1.24
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.05	-0.18	1.32	0.06	-0.22	1.75
	Far South	Tasmania outside Far South	0.42	-0.10	3.13**	0.26	-0.05	1.89
Place that had lived the longest	Australia	Overseas	0.04	-0.61	4.20***	0.05	-0.76	3.39***
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.16	-0.16	2.39*	0.20	-0.20	2.84**
	Far South	Tasmania outside Far South	0.80	-0.06	4.41***	0.43	0.00	2.27*
<i>Familiarity with Bay</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
Awareness of Bay	Have heard	Not heard	0.00	n/a	a	0.00	n/a	a
Visitation to Bay	Have visited	Not visited	0.00	-0.16	0.16	0.01	-1.90	1.91
<i>Interaction with Bay</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
Activities during the visitation	Relaxing	Not relaxing	0.27	-0.66	7.76***	0.26	-0.63	6.82***
	Camping	Not camping	0.21	-0.38	4.77***	0.15	-0.27	3.13**
	Spending time with family/friends	Not spending time with family/friends	0.35	-0.37	5.82***	0.28	-0.31	4.73***
	Fishing	Not fishing	0.54	-0.39	7.34***	0.40	-0.31	5.79***
	Boating	Not boating	0.58	-0.28	6.19***	0.49	-0.24	5.61***
	Canoeing/Kayaking/Sailing	Not canoeing	0.17	-0.08	1.68	0.33	-0.15	3.79***
	Scuba diving/Snorkelling	Not scuba diving	0.46	-0.08	2.95**	0.30	-0.06	2.04*
	Swimming	Not swimming	0.40	-0.37	6.20***	0.39	-0.36	6.30***
	Day bushwalking	Not day bushwalking	-0.03	0.11	-0.87	0.02	-0.09	0.65
	Overnight bushwalking	Not overnight bushwalking	-0.35	0.15	-3.53***	-0.24	0.09	-2.35*
	Walking for exercise	Not walking for exercise	0.48	-0.38	6.90***	0.42	-0.34	6.23***
	Cycling	Not cycling	0.66	-0.05	2.68**	0.28	-0.03	1.28
	Sightseeing	Not sightseeing	0.13	-0.13	1.96	0.08	-0.08	1.24
	Motor sports	Not motor sports	0.33	-0.01	0.89	-0.38	0.00	-0.93
Purpose of visitation	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
	To be with family	Not to be with family	0.62	-0.31	6.65***	0.48	-0.23	5.41***
	To be with friends	Not to be with friends	0.55	-0.36	7.18***	0.39	-0.24	5.00***
	To be close to nature/ away from city	Not to be close to nature/ away from city	0.12	-0.35	3.12**	0.16	-0.44	4.14***
	To enjoy the scenery	Not to enjoy the scenery	0.04	-0.21	1.24	0.06	-0.31	2.06*
	To undertake activities	Not to undertake activities	0.11	-0.43	3.79***	0.12	-0.48	3.67***
	To enjoy the freedom	Not to enjoy the freedom	0.37	-0.49	7.09***	0.34	-0.44	6.45***
	To experience different lifestyle	Not to experience different lifestyle	0.64	-0.20	5.70***	0.48	-0.14	4.29***
	To meet new people	Not to meet new people	0.87	-0.12	5.05***	0.52	-0.07	3.18**
	To learn about the history/ nature	Not to learn about the history/ nature	0.08	-0.04	0.89	0.15	-0.07	1.64
	To work (tourism related)	Not to work (tourism related)	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.04	0.01	-0.10
	To work (not tourism related)	Not to work (not tourism related)	0.12	0.00	0.31	0.40	0.00	1.07
Time of visitation	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
	Week days	Not week days	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.11	-0.02	0.98
	Weekends	Not weekends	0.11	-0.11	1.56	0.16	-0.14	2.25*
	Public holidays	Not public holidays	0.40	-0.18	3.79***	0.31	-0.10	2.98**
	Easter holidays	Not Easter holidays	0.77	-0.29	7.74***	0.63	-0.22	6.39***
	Summer holidays	Not summer holidays	0.27	-0.21	3.45***	0.24	-0.16	3.07**
	School holidays	Not school holidays	0.65	-0.13	4.55***	0.54	-0.09	3.91***
	Special family occasions	Not special family occasions	0.68	-0.09	3.77***	0.59	-0.06	3.58***

a. t cannot be computed because at least one of the groups is empty

* p≤.05, **p≤.01, ***p≤.001

For the Park, the findings of t-tests (Table 6-25) and one-way ANOVAs (Table 6-26) were summarised. The following pages outline the details of the results and point out where the differences occurred. Note that only results found significant for both study sites are discussed. As the focus of the thesis is particularly concerned with sense of place, results significant for one site only are also given in Appendices 6 and 7. However, these single-site results are not discussed in the body of the thesis because they do not add to the primary findings in terms of providing generalisable information applicable to other protected areas¹.

Table 6-25 – One-way ANOVAs for effects of variables on *place attachment*, Tasman National Park

<i>Variable and source</i>	<i>Emotional attachment</i>				<i>Functional attachment</i>			
	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>Stakeholders' backgrounds</i>								
<i>Socio-economic backgrounds</i>								
<i>Age</i>								
Between groups	2.02	2	1.01	1.02	5.63	2	2.81	2.84
Within groups	297.17	299	0.99		324.55	328	0.99	
<i>Level of education completed</i>								
Between groups	17.00	2	8.50	8.94 ***	8.17	2	4.09	4.12 *
Within groups	287.04	302	0.95		325.38	328	0.99	
<i>Connection with the Park</i>								
<i>Property time</i>								
Between groups	0.19	2	0.09	0.08	0.18	2	0.09	0.11
Within groups	113.79	102	1.12		92.19	117	0.79	
<i>Familiarity with the Park</i>								
<i>Total frequency of visitation</i>								
Between groups	29.04	3	9.68	10.82 ***	68.00	3	22.67	28.25 ***
Within groups	270.05	302	0.89		264.81	330	0.80	
<i>Total length of visitation</i>								
Between groups	3.01	2	1.50	1.51	19.09	2	9.54	10.12 ***
Within groups	294.41	296	1.00		303.72	322	0.94	
<i>Total frequency of visitation in the past one year</i>								
Between groups	48.51	3	16.17	19.36 ***	62.21	3	20.74	25.36 ***
Within groups	250.56	300	0.84		268.23	328	0.82	
<i>Interaction with the Park</i>								
<i>Number of companion</i>								
Between groups	7.91	3	2.64	2.71	2.52	3	0.84	0.85
Within groups	282.35	290	0.97		312.85	316	0.99	
<i>Length of each visitation</i>								
Between groups	10.28	2	5.14	5.36 **	6.42	2	3.21	3.26
Within groups	288.44	301	0.96		323.40	328	0.99	
<i>Stakeholders' perceptions of tourism impacts</i>								
<i>Degree of change</i>								
Between groups	1.44	2	0.72	0.68	2.61	2	1.31	1.34
Within groups	281.69	266	1.06		288.14	295	0.98	
<i>Degree of influence on the atmosphere</i>								
Between groups	2.72	2	1.36	1.28	12.40	2	6.20	6.60 **
Within groups	274.29	258	1.06		270.42	288	0.94	
<i>Degree of influence on the attraction of the place</i>								
Between groups	1.75	2	0.88	0.85	4.34	2	2.17	2.30
Within groups	275.76	266	1.04		280.44	297	0.94	
<i>Anticipated degree of influence on the atmosphere</i>								
Between groups	4.15	2	2.08	2.01	9.63	2	4.81	5.00 **
Within groups	293.68	285	1.03		301.61	313	0.96	

¹ In order to keep the thesis to a reasonable length, I have not presented the full richness and diversity of the data obtained from the questionnaire. However, I have drawn on all the data relevant to my research objectives. I do intend to make use of these data when preparing journal articles from this research.

Table 6-26 –T-test for effects of variables on *place attachment*, Tasman National Park

<i>Dependent variable</i>			<i>Emotional attachment</i>			<i>Functional attachment</i>		
<i>Independent variable (Stakeholders' backgrounds)</i>			<i>Mean factor score</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>Mean factor score</i>		<i>t</i>
<i>Socio-economic backgrounds</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>		<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>	
Gender	Female	Male	0.12	-0.12	2.13*	0.04	-0.03	0.65
Employment	Tourism related	Not tourism related	0.45	-0.05	2.70**	0.57	-0.07	3.77***
<i>Connection with the Park</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
Owners Property	Have property	Have no property	0.62	-0.34	8.34***	0.51	-0.31	7.81***
hip House	Have a house	Have no house	0.59	0.68	-0.41	0.55	0.38	0.94
Shack	Have a shack	Have no shack	0.68	0.60	0.35	0.51	0.51	0.04
Land	Have land	Have no land	-0.57	0.66	-2.37*	-1.09	0.56	-3.92***
Birthplace	Australia	Overseas	0.07	-0.24	2.36*	0.03	-0.12	1.15
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.16	-0.02	1.41	0.10	-0.02	0.99
	Tasman Peninsula	Other places in Tasmania	0.81	0.11	1.80	0.67	0.07	1.49
Residence	Australia	Overseas	0.02	-0.79	2.42*	0.02	-1.26	3.15**
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.05	-0.18	1.25	0.07	-0.39	3.28**
	Tasman Peninsula	Other places in Tasmania	0.63	-0.20	6.65***	0.52	-0.14	5.61***
Place that had lived the longest	Australia	Overseas	0.04	-0.38	2.27*	0.05	-0.42	2.64**
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	0.07	0.02	0.38	0.14	-0.16	2.44*
	Tasman Peninsula	Other places in Tasmania	0.48	-0.02	2.58*	0.51	0.06	2.50*
<i>Familiarity with the Park</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
Awareness of the Park	Have heard	Not heard	0.00	-0.23	0.32	0.01	-0.85	1.21
Visitation to the Park	Have visited	Not visited	0.00	n/a	a	0.00	n/a	a
<i>Interaction with the Park</i>	<i>Group1</i>	<i>Group2</i>						
Activities during the visitation	Sightseeing	Not sightseeing	0.00	-0.04	0.32	0.04	-0.12	1.28
	Fishing	Not fishing	0.32	-0.17	4.25***	0.19	-0.10	2.54*
	Boating	Not boating	0.45	-0.16	4.43***	0.30	-0.11	3.40***
	Sailing	Not sailing	-0.17	0.01	-0.84	0.06	-0.01	0.35
	Sea kayaking/Canoeing	Not sea kayaking/Canoeing	0.24	-0.09	2.53*	0.28	-0.10	3.38***
	Surfing	Not surfing	0.27	-0.05	1.95	0.23	-0.04	1.71
	Scuba diving/Snorkelling	Not scuba diving/snorkelling	0.36	-0.13	3.79***	.27	-0.10	2.97**
	Swimming	Not swimming	0.21	-0.19	3.58***	0.26	-0.23	4.52***
	Abseiling/Rock climbing	Not abseiling/Rock climbing	0.03	-0.01	0.06	0.14	-0.01	0.17
	Hang gliding	Not hang gliding	1.01	-0.01	1.01	1.31	-0.01	1.32
	Day bushwalking	Not day bushwalking	0.00	-0.03	0.15	0.05	-0.43	2.76**
	Overnight bushwalking	Not overnight bushwalking	-0.08	0.04	-0.97	0.14	-0.10	2.20*
	Camping	Not camping	-0.11	0.11	-1.94	-0.02	0.02	-0.38
	Picnicking	Not picnicking	0.03	-0.04	0.60	0.13	-0.13	2.38*
	Relaxing	Not relaxing	0.15	-0.20	3.04**	0.14	-0.18	3.00**
	Spending time with family/friends	Not spending time with family/friends	0.17	-0.23	3.53***	0.20	-0.27	4.38***
	Cycling	Not cycling	0.05	-0.01	0.39	0.14	-0.02	0.89
Purpose of visitation	To be with family	Not to be with family	0.31	-0.13	3.49***	0.22	-0.09	2.59**
	To be with friends	Not to be with friends	0.14	-0.11	2.16*	0.10	-0.07	1.52
	To be close to nature/away from city	Not to be close to nature/away from city	0.02	-0.06	0.66	0.11	-0.30	3.50***
	To enjoy the scenery	Not to enjoy the scenery	0.00	-0.06	0.36	0.03	-0.32	2.12*
	To undertake activities	Not to undertake activities	0.03	-0.15	1.17	0.07	-0.37	3.20***
	To enjoy the freedom	Not to enjoy the freedom	0.28	-0.25	4.68***	0.34	-0.33	6.42***
	To experience different lifestyle	Not to experience different lifestyle	0.38	-0.08	3.00**	0.30	-0.07	2.60**
	To meet new people	Not to meet new people	0.50	-0.04	2.40*	0.22	-0.03	1.15
	To learn about the history/ nature	Not to learn about the history/ nature	-0.04	0.01	-0.35	0.02	-0.02	0.37
	To work (tourism related)	Not to work (tourism related)	-0.06	0.00	-0.26	0.26	-0.03	1.38
	To work (not tourism related)	Not to work (not tourism related)	0.10	-0.01	0.37	-0.02	-0.01	-0.04
Time of visitation	Week days	Not week days	0.12	-0.14	2.31*	0.17	-0.23	3.69***
	Weekends	Not weekends	0.03	-0.12	1.18	0.04	-0.18	1.83
	Public holidays	Not public holidays	0.16	-0.08	1.87	0.13	-0.09	1.77
	Easter holidays	Not Easter holidays	0.51	-0.11	4.07***	0.32	-0.09	2.74**
	Summer holidays	Not summer holidays	0.12	-0.08	1.69	0.07	-0.07	1.22
	School holidays	Not school holidays	0.13	-0.05	1.12	0.29	-0.10	2.81**
	Special family occasions	Not special family occasions	0.29	-0.05	1.82	0.46	-0.09	3.31***

a. t cannot be computed because at least one of the groups is empty

* p≤.05, **p≤.01, ***p≤.001

Correlating variables of place attachment

The following elaborates on those variables that were identified as having significant relationships with both *emotional* and *functional attachment* for both study sites. For variables under the connection and familiarity category, two out of five variables were correlated with both dimensions. For the variable *property ownership*, a significant difference was detected in scores on both attachments between those who had property in the study sites (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$) and people who did not. Considering people's *longest residency*, a statistical distinction was perceived in scores on both attachments for those whose longest residency was in Australia and overseas (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.001$; Park $p=.016$, $p=.002$). On the other hand, *total frequency of visitation* was detected by one-way ANOVA as a determinant of both attachments (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$). Post-hoc comparisons illustrated the divergence between people who had visited:

Bay-Emotional attachment

- once ($M=-0.61$, $SD=0.73$) and two to nineteen times ($M=-0.22$, $SD=0.84$), twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=0.27$, $SD=0.88$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=0.97$, $SD=1.02$);
- two to nineteen times and either twenty to ninety-nine times or over ninety-nine times;
- twenty to ninety-nine times and over ninety-nine times.

Park

- over ninety-nine times ($M=0.38$, $SD=1.06$) and once ($M=-0.54$, $SD=0.64$), two to nineteen times ($M=-0.30$, $SD=0.82$) or twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=-0.10$, $SD=0.96$);
- once and either two to nineteen times or twenty to ninety-nine times;
- two to nineteen times and twenty to ninety-nine times.

Bay-Functional attachment

- once ($M=-0.72$, $SD=0.90$) and two to nineteen times ($M=-0.11$, $SD=0.87$), twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=0.25$, $SD=0.73$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=0.88$, $SD=0.83$);
- over ninety-nine times and either two to nineteen times or twenty to ninety-nine times;
- two to nineteen times and twenty to ninety-nine times.

Park

- once ($M=-0.98$, $SD=0.78$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=0.05$, $SD=0.90$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=0.47$, $SD=0.95$);
- two to nineteen times ($M=-0.51$, $SD=0.85$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times or over ninety-nine times;
- twenty to ninety-nine times and over ninety-nine times;
- once and two to nineteen times.

Total frequency of visitation in the past one year can also influence scores for both attachments (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$), with significant differences varying with frequency:

Bay-Emotional attachment

- none ($M=-0.48$, $SD=0.88$) and either a few times ($M=0.31$, $SD=0.87$) or more than a few times ($M=1.27$, $SD=0.86$);
- once ($M=-0.40$, $SD=0.82$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Park

- more than a few times ($M=0.59$, $SD=1.02$) and none ($M=-0.60$, $SD=0.60$), once ($M=-0.45$, $SD=0.75$) or a few times ($M=-0.07$, $SD=0.96$);
- once and a few times;
- none and either once or a few times.

Bay-Functional attachment

- none ($M=-0.33$, $SD=0.95$) and either a few times ($M=0.28$, $SD=0.77$) or more than a few times ($M=1.07$, $SD=0.83$);
- once ($M=-0.37$, $SD=0.94$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Park

- none ($M=-0.88$, $SD=0.77$) either a few times ($M=0.05$, $SD=0.95$) or more than a few times ($M=0.53$, $SD=0.86$);
- once ($M=-0.51$, $SD=0.90$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Among the items of interaction (see Section 4.3.4), three out of five items were correlated with both attachments. *Activities* were proved as one of them. Again, significant differences were found:

- relaxing and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.003$, $p=.003$);
- spending time with family/friends and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$);
- boating and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.001$);
- swimming and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$).

There was also a statistical distinction in scores for both kinds of attachment between respondents whose *purpose of visitation* was to:

- be with family and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.001$, $p=.010$);
- enjoy freedom and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.000$);
- experience different lifestyle and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.003$, $p=.010$).

Time of visitation was another determinant, with a significant divergence between those who visited on Easter holidays and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$, $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$, $p=.006$).

Correlating variables of emotional attachment

Across the items of connection and interaction (see Section 4.3.4), three out of five were significantly correlated with emotional attachment. Considering *birth place*, there was significant disparity in scores on emotional attachment for people who were born in Australia and overseas (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.019$). A statistical distinction was also

found for scores on emotional attachment for respondents whose *residence* (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$) or *longest residency* (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.011$) was in Far South/Tasman Peninsula and elsewhere in Tasmania. On the other hand, *activities* were proved as another variable related to emotional attachment. There was a statistical difference in scores for *emotional attachment* between respondents who undertook:

- fishing and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$);
- scuba diving and people who did not (Bay $p=.004$; Park $p=.000$).

There was also a statistical distinction between those whose *purpose of visitation* was to:

- be with friends and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.032$);
- meet new people and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.017$).

A statistical variance was detected in scores on *emotional attachment* for those who had various *length of each visitation* (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$). Differences were:

Bay

- one day or less ($M=-0.53$, $SD=0.72$) and either two to seven days ($M=0.15$, $SD=1.01$) or more than one week ($M=1.09$, $SD=0.91$);
- two to seven days and more than one week.

Park

- more than one week ($M=0.88$, $SD=1.00$) and either one day or less ($M=0.00$, $SD=1.02$) or two to seven days ($M=-0.12$, $SD=0.93$);
- one day or less and two to seven days.

Correlating variables of functional attachment

For the interaction category, three out of five variables were determinants of functional attachment. One was *activities*, with a significant disparity between those who went 'kayaking/canoeing' and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.001$). There was also a statistical distinction in scores for *functional attachment* between respondents whose *purpose of visitation* was to:

- be close to nature and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.001$);
- undertake activities and those who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.001$).

Time of visitation was correlated with both senses of place, with a significant divergence between those who visited on:

- school holidays and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.005$);
- special family occasions and people who did not (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.001$).

Total length of visitation was another variable. There was a statistically significant difference in functional attachment scores for those who had visited for (Bay $p=.000$; Park $p=.000$):

Bay

- ten years and less than ten years ($M=-0.48$, $SD=0.98$) and either more than ten

years and less than twenty-five years ($M=0.23$, $SD=0.79$) or over twenty-five years ($M=0.44$, $SD=0.98$);

- more than ten years and less than twenty-five years and over twenty-five years.

Park

- once ($M=-0.98$, $SD=0.78$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=0.05$, $SD=0.90$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=0.47$, $SD=0.95$);
- two to nineteen times ($M=-0.51$, $SD=.085$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times or over ninety-nine times;
- twenty to ninety-nine times and over ninety-nine times;
- once and two to nineteen times.

Considering *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere* as another determinant, statistical variation was identified (Bay $p=.008$; Park $p=.007$) between those who anticipated the atmosphere would:

Bay

- change a little ($M=-0.38$, $SD=0.95$) and change a lot ($M=0.10$, $SD=0.96$);
- stay the same ($M=-0.50$, $SD=1.29$) and either change a little or change a lot.

Park

- change a lot ($M=0.20$, $SD=0.96$) and either stay the same ($M=-0.23$, $SD=0.97$) or change a little ($M=-0.10$, $SD=1.02$);
- stay the same and change a little.

6.5 Analysis of interviews in relation to sense of place

In this section I present an analysis of the interview questions associated with sense of place. The questions included: “What does this place mean to you?”; “Do you feel attached or belong to this place?” and “Do you feel this place as a part of your home?”

In Chapter 8, I integrate the implications of these results with the survey findings

6.5.1 Recherche Bay

The most southerly point by road

Some day visitors as well as grey nomads visited the area because it is the most southerly point in Australia which can be reached by road: “I suppose it is like the Land’s End in Britain. There is a certain special thing about going to the furthest points” (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff).

Representation of a different lifestyle and environment

The low key facilities and natural setting differentiated the site from town/city environments. This difference was appreciated by 50-year visitor RB18, who regarded the area as unique, “but so is every place in Tasmania. It is one of the joys of Tasmania because it is diverse and there are so many unique places in it”. The importance of this diversity was also noticed:

You seem to pick up something you wouldn't otherwise pick in the city. Maybe subconsciously or consciously, you wake up in the morning and walk around in the bush; you would feel different when you get up and open the curtain and look at the streets, power poles and other houses, stuff like that (RB3, 30-year visitor/partner of shack owner).

The place as an accessible example of what life was like one hundred years ago was regarded by RB1-1 (37-year shack owner) as a critical respite from the modern busy world: "We really need those examples because changes are exponential at the moment... It's amazing that in the 21 century, we still got that". Similarly, RB11 (5-year government staff) believed "places like this have become more and more important, to be tranquil, low key and undeveloped, but still give people access" because the "planet is getting more and more crowded".

The low level of development also contributed to a sense of equality:

There is a lot of equals because there is no buildings. Everyone brings their cars and tents and you all feel equal. There is no 'us and them', they got more than us ... The camp fire just brings people together ... I think there is something missing in the society these days (RB2, 34-year shack owner).

This relatively natural landscape recovered from past human disturbance also demonstrated the power of nature:

The other thing I really like that area is I think about the whaling community there, timber town, hundreds of people living there, and how the forests have reclaimed all of that, it is sort of this rare gem where nature has spread its wings, I am getting poetic, sort of faster than civilisation's eating into nature. I just really like being there and get a sense of that, I think it is pretty easy in this world to think of humanity as this juggernaut that just keeps on going further (RB17, 12-year visitor/government staff).

The place also offers a different lifestyle, such as "to socialise with friends, to sit around the fire overnight, which you cannot do in the city" (RB15, 50-year visitor). Another example is cooking by the fire and "back to the way it used to be" (RB2, a 34-year shack owner). This showed children "a different quality of life" (RB4-1, 36-year shack owner):

We don't have to have computers. We can cook on the campfire. We can do different things and have a good time. I think it is important to have different family time than you do at home. There is no electricity or TV to distract you and that enables you to have a different way of life.

When we look back on to it (childhood memory) and really think kids miss out today; sit there with computer and games all day. We had to make our own entertainment. I know they have their own life, but I don't think it is as good as we

had (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner).

This family friendly environment where children played as a group also shaped “a sense of tribal community” that led to “a strong sense of empathy” for Aboriginals:

... [T]he kids just integrate so well because there is no electricity; there is no TV. They climb trees; they ride bikes; they eat their food off the fires; they play whole day all together as a group... That gives us, forms sort of the tribal connection. I'm the white Anglo-Saxon people. I'm not Aboriginal, but yet I get that sense of tribal community in the area, and you can also get a strong empathy with Aboriginal culture when you live there yourself. It's a very important point. Actually, you do get a strong sense of empathy. We become very tribal down there although we are not Aboriginal (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner).

A place for non-exclusive, use-oriented, and intellectual attachment

A rather general connection to the place was expressed. A non-local first time visitor RB19 who had spent a few weeks in the area felt like being at home wherever she travelled: “It is more like a tourism destination to us until we start to stay like a month and then I will start to feel like a home”. A 50+year visitor RB15 claimed that his attachment to the Bay was no more than other places, and he was attached to any place where there is a river and bush in Tasmania. RB15, RB21 (15-year regular visitor), and RB6 said that there was no one thing they would do in the Bay that they wouldn't be able to do elsewhere:

There are a few places around Tasmania or Australia where there are this type of traditional camping next to the national park or close to the national park or conservation areas, such as Rocky Cape national park and shack settlement. ...So, it is not unique from that perspective (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff).

Similarly, this non-exclusive feeling for the area was among those who had profound knowledge of its history. RB10 (7-year Lune River resident/2-year accommodation staff) who was originally from Belgium working as a sea captain, felt he belonged to the site and any other place where similar history took place because he could emphasise:

I know it was quite difficult to travel in the old days. I feel like being back to the older days. ...that is the soft spot (waterhole) for me in the whole area because you connected with the difficulty it was in the past.

This non-exclusive link was also conveyed by RB13 (campaigner/7-year visitor), originally from France:

I do make a connection. I feel there is a connection for me because it is where the French people that landed there. ... When I discovered the first white woman that landed in Tasmania was a French woman... It did give me a sense of what I belong

here just as much as any other white people here... It gave me a sense of belonging. I thought I've got as much right to be here as the other white people here.

A different connection to the place that was also associated with knowledge of history was expressed by a 40-year visitor/19-year shack owner RB14, who felt attached to “the tough people live there and [who] had to take mails by boats” and to the fact that “the French people were right and everything after that is wrong”. This connection was called “intellectual attachment” by RB6, who explained the bond to the Bay was from his head while, from his heart, he had an emotional attachment to elsewhere:

It (Victorian land) is a scrappy ruthless sort of place, not environmentally important at all, but it is where my father was born and grew up. ... I went back whenever I feel like it... sort of re-connecting, connection. Some are intellectual exercise. ... I went back for the family research, spiritual thing. ... It (the feeling for Recherche Bay) is intense intellectual attachment, being intellectually interested in something, not emotionally attached to it (RB6, volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/former government staff).

A place for exclusive/emotional attachment

It was also a place with special memories. “It is a good time you have here with family and friends and things” (5-year regular camper RB20); a place for precious memories: “Sitting around here with people and talk about memories. ... New Year's Eve to stay along with my daughter when she was 6 months old at that time” (RB3, 30-year visitor/partner of shack owner). Memories were also related to activities, such as “fishing with parents. ... playing on the beach” (regular camper RB21); “my two kids and I have walked to South Cape Rivulet. There is a special memory taking your kids overnight bushwalking, so it's got a special meaning”; “I have walked through to South Cape Rivulet and it is very nice to walk through to the beach and look through to the mountains” (RB18, 50-year visitor).

In particular, Black Swan Lagoon, had a lot of picnics there. That is magnificent. There is huge amount of water. When it is really full, we will go there and dig a little drainage. As it is going down, it will undermine the sand and it just falls in. It's fascinating to watch. We packed food and go there and kids like it. We had a good childhood down there (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner).

A exclusive attachment was found among those who engaged at a more intense or personal level. RB11 (5-year government staff), who had been working in the region every day for five years, felt specially attached “because I have come down there for a long, long time, but it's an especially attractive place”. A 20-year visitor/partner of shack owner RB4-2 claimed that “I would feel sad if I couldn't come here any more”.

RB8 (26-year resident/3-year tourism business manager) who married a local, experienced “a rather emotional tug to d’Entrecasteaux’s waterhole” and was “rather attached to that area personally” because of the history and her husband’s past. For the shack owners who had visited since childhood, the attachment was especially emotional:

I get very sentimental when I talked about the area. I feel like my heart is tied to it, where good family memories are, very connected. It’s not just anonymous territory anywhere. It’s just this place, special place (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner).

I definitely have a sort of emotional attachment. ... Even though I grew up in the same family home, I don’t feel the same attachment to that place as here. I think that’s because you have more family time in an environment like this. ... After we lost my dad, the emotional impact was here (RB4-1, 36-year shack owner).

The intellectual and emotional attachments can also motivate people to protect the place. RB8 claimed: “Recherche Bay is fiercely protected by the locals. They are very proud that they got that area”. RB3 (30-year visitor/partner of shack owner) said: “If it got threatened more so than this in the moment, you will feel like you want to protect it in some way, a sort of attachment in that level”. It was the want of protecting d’Entrecasteaux’s legacy of the “pristine sheltered and solitary harbour at the extremity of the globe where the sound of the axe had never been heard” that drove RB5 to join the campaign against the Northeast Peninsula logging.

Extension of territories and homes (rootedness)

The bonding with setting can also develop and evolve into an essential part of people’s lives and family tradition. For example, “I do talk about it a lot; it’s a part of our life; a part of our family” (34-year shack owner RB2). The region was an important family gathering place across generations for some regular campers and shack owners: “It has the connections to all of their brothers and sisters, and now the grandchildren meet down there as well” (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner). A Moss Glen shack owner RB16: “They (the second generations) like to go there when they were kids, but not when they were teenagers; but when they have their own family and kids, they start to go down there again”.

Just watching all the family divide off and have their own children and watch all of them enjoy the experiences of growing up and pleasures of the area and they are getting older and they are starting to bring their friends now. Just the three generations enjoy the place (RB2, 33-year visitor/partner of shack owner).

Those who used the area as a family gathering spot had claimed a kind of ownership. They viewed the Bay as an extension of personal territories. It was their “backyard” because of knowing quite a few of people who went down there (RB5, campaigner/7-year Far South resident; RB20, 5-year regular camper), or the freedom to undertake activities (RB8, 26-year resident/3-year tourism business manager). For the shack owners, the ownership had evolved from homes to second homes:

No phone, no electricity, you feel the place is yours. No interruption, the places is yours. I feel like I am home every time when I come back to stay, it's the shed, but it's the place, not the shed (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner).

RB5 (campaigner/7-year Far South resident) was so enthusiastic that he resided nearby eventually because no land was available in the Bay. However, once again, his passion for the place had risen to a different level:

Now I wouldn't want to live there, I don't need to live there... you don't have to go to a place to appreciate it, I often think of those words by Henry Kendall, the famous Australian poet. In his poem 'Orara', he says, “though I may linger long and look, perhaps the lot is bright, that keeps the river of the song, a beauty out of sight”. ... You don't have to be physically in a place to appreciate the significance of a place, it is the famous Heisenberg “Uncertainty principle”. Once you interfere with the momentum of a particle by observing it, its position becomes uncertain and vice versa. Once you interfere with the beauty of nature, you have altered it forever.

A place people identify with

The meanings of the place can also evolve from ownership to “a place that has the spiritual value, not the dollar value” (RB1-2, 33-year visitor/partner of shack owner). It can be a place that “has a secret meaning” because ashes of a family member were scattered there and probably most of the family will ask to have their ashes there as well (RB1-2). It can provide path for identifying personal values:

I feel that every time when I went there, I don't feel it has changed. You have a sense of geographical change and leaving the city behind and going to a rugged place and that helps me relax and re-centre, re-align with my core values (RB1-1, 37-year shack owner).

This identity formation can also be achieved through the recognition of new family members and sharing values across generations. “It's a place where our children now take their children there. That means a lot to us because I know they enjoy their lives” (RB12, 50-year regular camper). This view was shared by a shack owner:

We wanted to include our partners and our children. As our family have shown their partners this place, we all have secretly hoped they would fall in love with it, too. It would be a shock if we came here and they said they never wanted to come back. I think it is important to all of us that the person we are with, really likes this place as much as we do... My son is in grade 9 and they did a planning exercise... He nominated this as an important place. When this place impacts on a child who is 14, you realise you haven't drummed that into them and demanded it that they love it because they have grown up to enjoy it for what it is. They are not after anything else. They are not saying it needed to be developed for us to enjoy it. They are accepting it for what it is now (RB4-1, 36-year shack owner).

A place with mental benefits

"If life at home is stressful then you can take yourself here and it can lift everything away" (RB4-1). RB12 (50-year camper) and RB4-1 (36-year shack owner) mentioned that family members had more time interacting with each other because of the absence from distractions at home. The importance for children to learn how to relate to people in the outdoor natural environment was stressed:

I think they (children nowadays) don't communicate with people any more. Now they do their own things; the things they do on their own, with the computer, watching videos and things like that. I think the communication between people, learn to get on well with people, like learn to lose, to play games that sort of things, caring for one another (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner).

I think that (visiting Recherche Bay) also makes them a better person because they go back to nature, learning. We all learn things down there. My grandson learned to fish, my granddaughter learned to swim, a lot of sorts of things, learning just sit around the camp fire overnight with all the older people, we just all interacting all the time with our kids and now grandchildren. I think that is important. That's why I like it down there (RB12, 50-year camper).

6.5.2 Tasman National Park

A place for relaxation and recreation

The meanings of the area to people can be functional: "It [the Park] is a potential gold mine if it was marketed properly, if infrastructure was put in place" (TNP4, 18-year resident/local business owner). A 10-year resident, TNP9, claimed: "I don't think it [the Park] means anything to me other than the bushland where I can go for a walk and relax and socialise with my friends." For a 10-year regular camper at Fortescue Bay, TNP13, the Park was "just somewhere nice, you can get away and relax, enjoy it. Everyone is friendly. The place is always clean".

This would be my top choice over the national parks I've been to, probably because I grew up here, I feel familiar with the place. It is somewhere fun, to spend time with family. ... I have special memories and special feelings. Swimming in the beach, being close to the nature, listen to the waves, we were on the beach at night (TNP14, 20-year regular camper at Fortescue Bay).

Representation of a different environment

Some locations in the region without easy access presented a different type of environment and a contrast with built settings. For example, TNP7 (7-year resident/government staff member) mentioned there were only two remote beaches: Crescent Bay is an hour's walk, and the other is Lagoon Beach (outside Tasman National Park): "There are only two out of a dozen beaches on the Peninsula which don't have easy access, so you get different type of uses there and different types of recreational opportunities there". TNP5 (50-year resident/local business owner) also addressed ocean views:

You get the most amazing sense of almost being at the end of the world. That is quite thrilling because I live on the other side of the Peninsula at Koonya; it is a very domestic view and domestic land and it is a very settled place. But over at Cape Raoul and Cape Pillar, it is so wild, Cape Huay as well. They are extraordinary places which are so close to us, and yet which kind of admit us to another world. That is so different from that which we see every day.

A sensation of being away from civilisation was also strong: 10-year resident/local business owner TNP3 said that "I just love the area. It is away from town, away from all the traffic and noise. Other than in the busy tourist season, it is generally nice and quiet". A 4-year resident/local business staff TNP2 thought that "the view we have, the feeling of away from habitation and being out in a wild area is quite strong there".

You are far away enough to feel like you are far away from your normal life, that's good to escape, but it is not far away if you have to go back to civilisation for some reasons (TNP11, 32-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

A place with non-exclusive attachment

People's connections to the Park were conveyed in various ways. Some attachments were more general; an indicative example is that a 25-year regular bushwalker TNP8 was attached to the rainforest and to the "very harsh and primitive" environment. However, he had the same response to any place with similar features.

A place for emotional attachment (embeddedness)

The connections other interviewees showed were more regional, largely due to the lifestyle. TNP3 (10-year resident/local business owner) explained why the Peninsula was “where my heart is and always has been”:

I love the Peninsula. I always want to live here and I did it in the end. I think it is a fantastic place to live. I love working here. I like bringing up my kids here. It is a great environment to be brought up. They don't realise it, but hopefully after they grow up, they'd look back one day and understand how good they've had it.

TNP15 (17-year irregular visitor/government staff) expressed a wish to move to the Peninsula due to past work experiences, especially because of the Tasman community,. Another interviewee appreciated “the magnificent lifestyle” on the Peninsula:

I can understand the Aboriginals' views, their affinity to the land. I've got that same sort of feeling. It is a sense of home and sense of being part of it. I got the same affinity to the whole Tasman Peninsula, especially to the Tasman National Park (TNP4, 18-year resident/local business owner).

The more Park-focused attachment was also expressed by TNP7 (7-year resident/government staff member), who believed “it is a fantastic place around there” due to the beautiful Tasman Island, remote beaches like Crescent Bay and Fortescue Bay, as well as undeveloped areas between Cape Raoul and Nubeena. In light of special memories and long-term visitation, some interviewees were emotionally involved with the Park: “My son and I walked, and my daughter also, on different occasions, to Cape Pillar. So it is family stuff” (TNP16, 44-year non-local regular bushwalker). This emotional association was also found among the regular campers interviewed at Fortescue Bay:

We love the place; have good memories... I remember one year we caught one hundred crabs, sea foods, heaps of fish, it is pretty safe, we used to have a big fire on the beach and all the young ones go down there. ...a heap of dolphins came into the bay. There were hundreds and hundreds of them. ... I feel something under my mattress and it was a skin of a tiger snake under the tent (TNP11, 25-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

This attachment can be triggered by special features of the place:

We played here on the rocks when we were kids, done all the walks, been out around the Hippolytes, fishing. There used to be a lot of dolphins and porpoises. There used to be a lot of tiger porpoises. We just sit in the boat and you can put your hands down and touch them when they go past (TNP10, 33-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

The smell of the road and place brings back the memory. ... When you drive in from the highway, there is a smell; there has a certain smell, the gum leaves and things that bring back the memories as soon as you hit this road, the Fortescue Bay Rd. It doesn't smell like this anywhere else. It certainly smells like this Park (TNP11, 25-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

A place with spiritual and mental benefits

A 50-year resident/local business owner, TNP5, whose family had lived on the Peninsula since 1960 (where family members were buried), indicated a strong attachment that "is very important to us; I wouldn't want to move away from it". It can be a place with power to comfort and rest people: "This is my happy place. If I have to get away from anything, this is where I come because this is where my good memories are, my childhood" (TNP11, 25-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay). For families who had visited Fortescue Bay across generations, visiting meant passing on values:

My favourite place ... I came here when I was a kid and now I bring my own kids. We want our kids to do the same things we have done before, to see the penguins. ... [M]emories with friends and family, it is always good, every time when we come here we have a good time (TNP13, 10-year regular camper, Fortescue Bay).

The bond with the area also helped identity formation. A non-local visitor TNP16, who wished to live there, thought the Park so special it helped him to discover a sense of identity:

It [the Park] is unique but so is every place in Tasmania. ... It [Tasmania] is not just my home and territory; it is also a part of who I am. It contributes to who I am. This place helps you to define yourself. It contributes to who and what you are. I am a Tasmanian before I am an Australian, very much so (TNP16, 44-year regular bushwalker).

Chapter 7 **Tourism development, impact and future visitation**

This chapter presents the results of both interviews and questionnaires associated with attitudes to tourism developments, perceptions of tourism impacts and future visit plans for the two study sites. Each section begins with the descriptive analysis and confidence interval (CI) analysis of the attitudes/perceptions/intentions of different stakeholder groups. Similarities and differences between the views of the stakeholder groups (local community people, non-local visitors, non-local environmental group members and Tasmanian Government officials) are examined. The factors that might influence all respondents' attitudes/perceptions/intentions are then examined by using chi-square tests and cross-tabulation. The components that were examined were chosen in response to my research objectives in Section 1.2. Socio-economic background and recreational behaviours are examined as possible determinants of these variables. The relationship between tourism developments and tourism impacts is also tested. The results that are significant are discussed together with analyses of cross-tabulations to illustrate the nature of the relationship between the variables. As with Chapter 6, I only present results that were related to sense of place or those that were of significance for both study areas (see also footnote 1 above). In some sections, quotations from the in-depth interviews are used to further elaborate the matters under examination.

7.1 Attitudes towards current tourism development

7.1.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Attitudes of stakeholder groups towards current tourism development

More than half of respondents regarded the *current level of tourism development* as “about right”, with 17.8% “too much” and 14.1% “not sure” (Table 7-1). For different stakeholder groups, ‘local businesses’ (62.5%), ‘non-business locals’ (70.8%) and ‘non-local visitors’ (67.0%) believed it to be “about right”. However, ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ chose “not sure” (35.5%) while ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ considered it to be “no enough” (50.0%). Views on the *current level of tourism development* among the stakeholders diverged, but the proportion of ‘local businesses’

who thought it to be “not enough” was higher than other stakeholder groups.

Table 7-1 –Attitudes to current tourism development in the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=304)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=188)</i>	
About right	57.9	About right	67.0
Too much	17.8	Too much	16.5
Not sure	14.1	Not sure	8.5
Not enough	10.2	Not enough	8.0
<i>Local business (n=8)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=76)</i>	
About right	62.5	Not sure	35.5
Not enough	25.0	About right	34.2
Too much	12.5	Too much	21.1
Not sure	0.0	Not enough	9.2
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
About right	70.8	Not enough	50.0
Too much	16.7	About right	25.0
Not enough	12.5	Too much	25.0
Not sure	0.0	Not sure	0.0

Figure 7.1 illustrates the CIs for the attitudes of stakeholder groups to the *current tourism development*. The figure indicates no significant difference among various stakeholder groups.

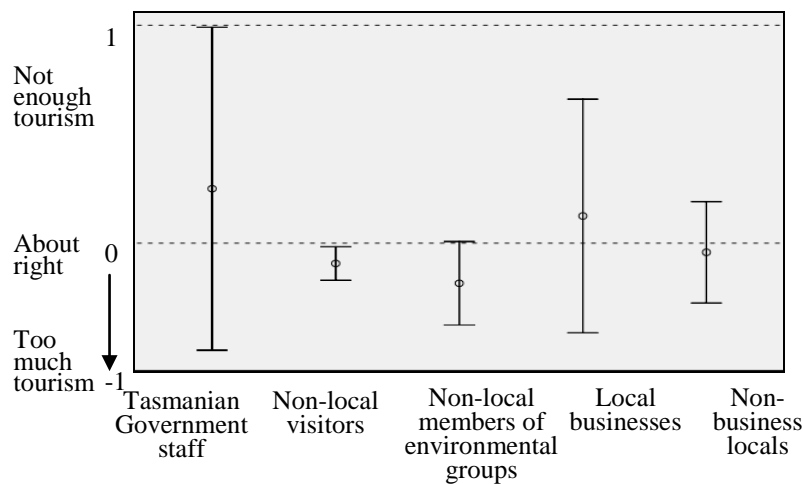


Figure 7.1 – CIs of attitudes of stakeholder groups to current tourism development in the Bay

Factors of respondents' attitudes towards current tourism development

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' *attitudes to the current tourism development* are identified by the chi-square test and summarised in Table 7-2. Note that six variables - *birthplace (Far South or Tasmania outside Far South)*, *total frequency of visitation*, *number of companion*, *stakeholder cohort type*, *perceptions of change* and *perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Bay* - were not assessed because they violated an assumption of the chi-square test which requires no more than 20% of the cells to have an expected count of less than five (Pallant 2007).

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-2 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of respondents’ attitudes to the current tourism development in the Bay

<i>Dependent variable-Attitudes to the current level of tourism development</i>			<i>n</i>	<i>χ²</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	258	0.71	2	0.700
		Age	256	2.70	4	0.610
		Level of education completed	251	0.49	4	0.975
		Employment category	261	1.40a	2	0.498
Connection with the Bay	Ownership	Property	233	0.74	2	0.692
		House	23	4.56a	2	0.102
		Shack	23	1.16a	2	0.559
		Land	3	4.79a	2	0.091
	Length of property ownership		14	4.98a	4	0.289
	Birthplace	Australia / overseas	258	0.36	2	0.837
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	207	0.36	2	0.835
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	207	6.79a	2	0.034 *
	Residence	Australia / overseas	256	2.54a	2	0.282
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	256	1.37	2	0.504
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	256	2.40	2	0.302
	Place of longest residency	Australia / overseas	257	1.10a	2	0.577
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	240	1.56	2	0.458
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	240	1.04	2	0.593
Familiarity with the Bay	Awareness of the Bay		261	2.97a	2	0.226
	Visitation to the Bay		261	9.77	2	0.008 **
	Total frequency of visitation		228	15.68a	6	0.016 *
	Total length of visitation		224	6.54	4	0.162
	Frequency of visitation in the past one year		232	5.06	6	0.536
Interaction with the Bay	Activities during the visitation	Relaxing	233	0.55	2	0.759
		Camping	233	0.93	2	0.628
		Spending time with family or friends	233	1.26	2	0.532
		Fishing	233	4.17	2	0.124
		Boating	233	0.92	2	0.631
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	233	3.15	2	0.077
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	233	2.49	2	0.287
		Swimming	233	0.89	2	0.640
		Day bushwalking	233	4.17	2	0.124
		Overnight bushwalking	233	2.46	2	0.293
		Walking for exercise	233	0.80	2	0.669
		Cycling	233	2.97a	2	0.227
		Sightseeing	233	2.16	2	0.340
		Motor sports	233	0.67a	2	0.717
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	231	0.59	2	0.743
		To be with friends	231	0.59	2	0.743
		To be close to nature or away from city	231	4.64	2	0.098
		To enjoy the scenery	231	3.34	2	0.188
		To do the activities	231	2.15	2	0.342
		To enjoy the freedom	231	2.29	2	0.319
		To experience different lifestyle	231	4.64	2	0.098
		To meet new people	231	2.67	2	0.263
		To learn about the history or nature	231	1.17	2	0.557
		To work (tourism related)	231	3.49a	2	0.175
		To work (not tourism related)	231	5.20a	2	0.074
	Number of companion		225	15.38a	6	0.018 *
	Time of visitation	Week days	224	4.56	2	0.102
		Weekends	224	0.87	2	0.646
		Public holidays	224	0.01	2	0.996
		Easter holidays	224	2.56	2	0.278
		Summer holidays	224	0.53	2	0.768
		School holidays	224	1.01	2	0.603
		Special family occasions	224	1.86	2	0.396
	Length of each visitation		230	2.37a	4	0.668
	Stakeholder cohort type		261	20.81a	6	0.002 **
Senses of place	Emotional attachment		207	3.76	2	0.153
	Functional attachment		219	9.87	2	0.007 **
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		172	24.98a	4	0.000 ***
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		165	20.38	4	0.000 ***
	Degree of influence on place attraction		178	23.55a	4	0.000 ***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Degree of influence on place atmosphere

More than half of those who thought the atmosphere had been ‘influenced a lot’ by the changes thought the *current tourism development* “too much” and the proportion were also two times higher than the other two groups of people (58.6% compared with 28.2% and 13.8%) (Table 7-3). This illustrates a relative repugnance to more tourism developments by those who had observed altered atmosphere. On the other hand, people considering the atmosphere had ‘stayed the same’ and been ‘influenced a little’ had a tendency to believe the *current tourism development* “about right”. For those respondents who thought the *current tourism development* “not enough”, there is little difference across the three groups of respondents.

Table 7-3 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to current tourism development by perceptions of degree of influence on the atmosphere

	% within degree of influence on atmosphere						Total	
	Same atmosphere		Atmosphere influenced a little		Atmosphere influenced a lot		%	N
Too much	13.8		28.2		58.6		27.9	46
About right	75.4		64.8		34.5		63.6	105
Not enough	10.8		7.0		6.9		8.5	14
Total	100	n=65	100	n=71	100	n=29	100	n=165

Sense of place as correlating variables***Functional attachment (see Chapter 4)***

The majority of the respondents believed that the *current tourism development* was “about right” (Table 7-4). The proportion of those who felt little or no functional attachment thought the *current tourism development* “not enough” (16.7%) was double that of those who had a functional attachment (6.5%). Similarly, a higher proportion of those who felt a functional attachment considered the *current tourism development* “too much” (27.5% compared with 12.1%).

Table 7-4 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to current tourism development by functional attachment

	% within functional attachment		Total
	Had no attachment	Had attachment	
Too much	12.1	27.5	22.8
About right	71.2	66.0	67.6
Not enough	16.7	6.5	9.6
Total	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

The prevalent view was that the *current tourism development* in the Bay was enough. However, there were two exceptions; a first-time camper RB19 thought: “It (having more visitors) will definitely change the atmosphere here. ... It doesn’t bother us really.

It's our lifestyle to just travel and camp everywhere and see what come to the place".

Another interviewee that held a different view was RB16, a 60-year Moss Glen shack owner (Figure 5.2), who expressed the desire for more visitors:

It may bring a ranger to stay here permanently, to stop people from damaging the place... It seems too nice for people not to come and enjoy it, you know, they come, enjoy it and do the right things, not taking anything out of the place, is it?

The wish for no more changes or disturbance to the activities people undertaken can lead to the negative attitudes to more tourism developments. A 26-year resident and three-year tourism business manager RB8 expressed: "We feel Recherche Bay should be left the way it is". A five-year regular camper RB20 also elaborated: "I just wouldn't like to see it to change like few other places...Most Tasmanians don't like changes anyway". They also wanted to maintain the way people enjoyed the place for camping (RB8, a 26-year resident and three-year tourism business manager) and using the shacks (RB2, a 34-year shack owner).

Another reason for the objection to more tourism developments is a concern regarding increased impacts such as damaged roads and camp sites (RB1-2, a 33-year visitor and partner of shack owner) as well as disturbing the sense of tranquillity (RB11, a five-year Tasmanian government staff). A 36-year shack owner's RB4-1 attitude to the possibility of more visitors was as follows:

It would be disappointing to see the place change. It's disappointing because things are gradually getting worse and worse. We don't expect to see things getting worse and worse just because of the volume of the people. Not because you don't want to share with people, but you don't want people to abuse it either. Abuse the privilege of being able to come here.

Another undesirable consequence of increased visitor volume was having more restrictions on free camping in the State Recreation Area (Figure 5.2), designated camp sites with camping fee applied for example. A 37-year shack owner RB1-1 explained why people disliked this alteration:

The impression I get from the friends we take down there and the local people, they feel restricted, a sense of injustice that Tasmanian government has promised to protected this area for the state and they've broken the promise. It may be very difficult for local people to use that facility. That encroaches on their territory.

On the other hand, a 50-year camper RB12 indicated the inevitability of having designated camping: "I like the way it is (free camping outside the National Park), but it is difficult to keep the way it is because there are too many people going there". A five-year Tasmanian

government staff RB11 said: “It will be better, from a perfect planning point of view, to have the specific notes for camping and services, and leave the natural areas in between”. RB16 (a 60-year Moss Glen shack owner) also supported the designated camp sites in order to generate funding for hiring a permanent ranger and maintaining the place.

7.1.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Attitudes of stakeholder groups towards current tourism development

The majority of the respondents observed the *current level of tourism development* as “about right” except ‘local businesses’ who chose “not enough” and “about right” (Table 7-5). Yet, objection to more tourism developments was expressed by ‘local members of environmental groups’, with a higher percentage of them thinking that the *current tourism development* “too much” (26.8%) than “not enough” (5.6%). On the other hand, ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ favoured more tourism developments, with a higher proportion thinking it to be “not enough” (37.5%) than “too much” (6.2%).

Table 7-5 – Attitudes to current tourism development in the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=393)</i>			
About right	60.80		
Not enough	17.00		
Too much	14.20		
Not sure	7.90		
<i>Local business (n=26)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=136)</i>	
Not enough	38.5	About right	65.4
About right	34.6	Not enough	17.6
Too much	23.1	Not sure	8.8
Not sure	3.8	Too much	8.1
<i>Local-others (n=79)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=65)</i>	
About right	65.8	About right	61.5
Not enough	16.5	Too much	16.9
Too much	10.1	Not enough	15.4
Not sure	7.6	Not sure	6.2
<i>Local environmental group members (n=71)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
About right	59.2	About right	43.8
Too much	26.8	Not enough	37.5
Not sure	8.5	Not sure	12.5
Not enough	5.6	Too much	6.2

The CIs for the attitudes of stakeholder groups to the *current level of tourism development* are compared in Figure 7.2. The figure indicates a significant difference between ‘local members of environmental groups’ and three other groups – ‘Tasmanian Government staff’, ‘non-local visitors’ and ‘other locals’.

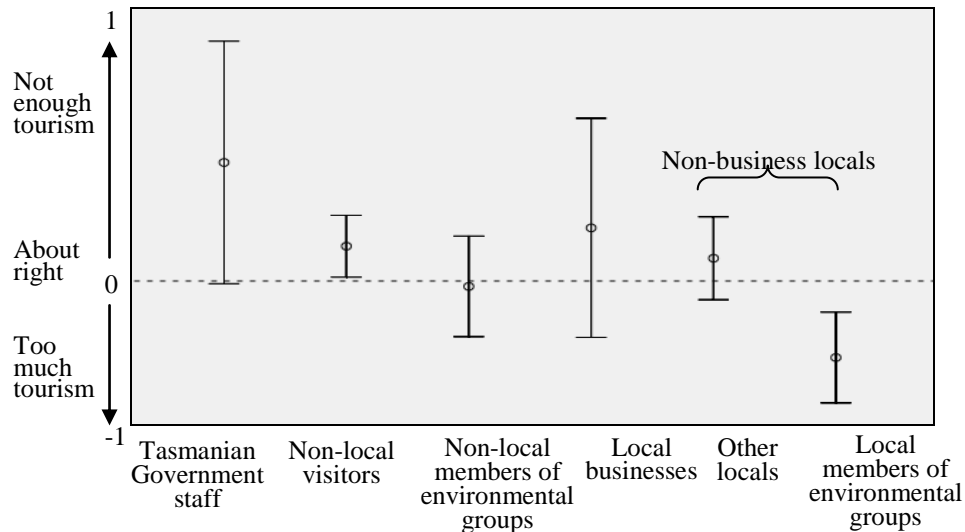


Figure 7.2 – CIs of attitudes of stakeholder groups to *current tourism development* in the Park

The CI analysis shows that there is no significant difference between the attitudes of three environmental groups to the *current tourism development* (Figure 7.3). PEN stands for ‘local environmental group’ while ‘non-local environmental groups’ are divided into TCT and TNPA.

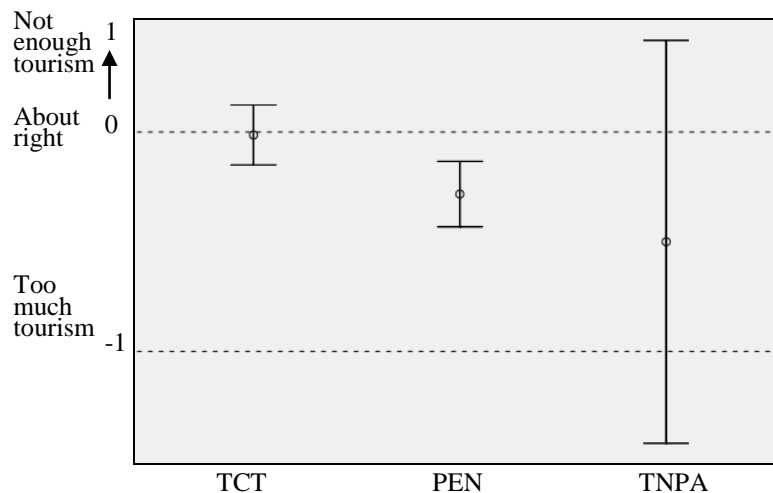


Figure 7.3 – CIs of attitudes of three environmental groups to *current tourism development* in the Park

Factors of respondents’ attitudes towards current tourism development

Correlating variables that might influence respondents’ *attitudes to the current tourism development* are identified by the chi-square test and summarised in Table 7-6. Note that two variables - *purpose of visitation (work- tourism related)* and *perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Park* - were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-6 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of respondents' attitudes to current tourism development in the Park

Dependent variable-Attitudes to the current level of tourism development			n	χ ²	df	P
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	359	4.23	2	0.120
		Age	355	18.80	8	0.016 *
		Level of education completed	354	7.34	4	0.119
		Employment category	362	5.15	2	0.076
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property	353	10.14	2	0.006 **
		House	135	8.89	2	0.012 *
		Shack	135	7.22	2	0.027 *
		Land	135	1.93a	2	0.381
		Length of property ownership	129	6.00	4	0.199
	Birthplace	Australia / overseas	359	1.44	2	0.487
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	275	9.19	2	0.010 **
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	145	0.12a	2	0.944
	Residence	Australia / overseas	360	3.89a	2	0.143
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	350	5.57a	2	0.062
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	312	8.68	2	0.013 *
	Place of longest residency	Australia / overseas	360	1.92	2	0.383
		Tasmania / mainland Australia	319	4.03	2	0.133
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	224	.14	2	0.931
Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park		362	.49a	2	0.784
	Visitation to the Park		362	.48a	2	0.786
	Total frequency of visitation		350	8.65	6	0.194
	Total length of visitation		339	4.55	4	0.337
	Frequency of visitation in the past one year		350	8.23	6	0.221
Interaction with the Park	Activities during the visitation	Sightseeing	353	3.61	2	0.164
		Fishing	353	1.57	2	0.457
		Boating	353	0.59	2	0.746
		Sailing	353	1.16a	2	0.559
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	353	1.31	2	0.519
		Surfing	353	0.58	2	0.749
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	353	1.36	2	0.506
		Swimming	353	0.44	2	0.802
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	353	0.01a	2	0.994
		Hang gliding	353	0.51a	2	0.775
		Day bushwalking	353	0.44	2	0.805
		Overnight bushwalking	353	5.57	2	0.062
		Camping	353	10.30	2	0.006 **
		Picnicking	353	1.59	2	0.452
		Relaxing	353	2.90	2	0.234
	Spending time with family or friends		353	9.11	2	0.010 **
	Cycling	353	1.81	2	0.404	
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	348	4.99	2	0.083
		To be with friends	348	5.33	2	0.070
		To be close to nature or away from city	348	1.42	2	0.493
		To enjoy the scenery	348	3.16	2	0.206
		To do the activities	348	4.03	2	0.134
		To enjoy the freedom	348	3.99	2	0.136
		To experience different lifestyle	348	1.22	2	0.544
		To meet new people	348	1.04a	2	0.595
		To learn about the history or nature	348	0.93	2	0.629
	To work (tourism related)	348	12.75a	2	0.002 **	
	To work (not tourism related)	348	1.61a	2	0.448	
	Number of companions		334	11.22	6	0.082
	Time of visitation	Week days	344	5.14	2	0.077
		Weekends	344	1.65	2	0.438
		Public holidays	344	1.02	2	0.601
		Easter holidays	344	1.80	2	0.407
		Summer holidays	344	1.03	2	0.596
		School holidays	344	1.34	2	0.511
		Special family occasions	344	1.48	2	0.478
	Length of each visitation		347	2.39a	4	0.665
Stakeholder cohort type			362	13.16	6	0.041 *
Senses of place	Emotional attachment		317	10.09	2	0.006 **
	Functional attachment		323	0.98	2	0.612
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		308	4.18	4	0.382
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		303	11.11	4	0.025 *
	Degree of influence on place attraction		308	28.42a	4	0.000 ***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Degree of influence on place atmosphere

The majority of survey respondents thought the *current level of tourism development* to be “about right” (Table 7-7). For those who thought the *current tourism development* “too much”, the stronger of their perception of altered ambiance, the more liable they are to express a relative aversion to more tourism developments. Conversely, a higher proportion of those thinking the atmosphere had stayed the same demonstrated a relative preference for more tourism developments in the Park.

Table 7-7 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to current tourism development by perceptions of influence on atmosphere

	% within <i>degree of influence on atmosphere</i>			Total
	Same atmosphere	Atmosphere influenced a little	Atmosphere influenced a lot	
Too much	9.7	16.1	31.1	16.2
About right	68.9	67.1	55.6	66.0
Not enough	21.4	16.8	13.3	17.8
Total	100	100	100	100

Sense of place as correlating variables***Emotional attachment (see Chapter 4)***

Table 7-8 shows the majority of respondents considered that the *current tourism development* was “about right”. The proportion of those who had an emotional attachment thought the *current tourism development* “too much” was double that of those who had little or no emotional attachment. This indicates a relative aversion to more tourism development in the Park by those with an emotional attachment.

Table 7-8 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to current tourism development by emotional attachment

	% within <i>emotional attachment</i>		Total
	No attachment	Had attachment	
Too much	10.3	23.1	16.1
About right	73.0	59.4	66.9
Not enough	16.7	17.5	17.0
Total	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

Interviewees had varied attitudes towards the *current tourism development* in the Park. Some considered more visitors as desirable because of its existing services, relatively robust environment, as well as the diverse natural and cultural area with the airport in the vicinity (TNP15 17-year irregular visitor and Tasmanian Government staff). On the other hand, others felt it enough, such as a ten-year resident TNP9 who thought the Peninsula should not rely on tourism because: “Tourism is something that is up and down”. This statement is endorsed by a 50-year resident and local business owner TNP5,

who believed the *current tourism development* was definitely adequate because:

We spend 6 months a year empty... People underestimate the quietness of the down season... I think what we are doing now is anticipating an ever increasing number of visitors rather than following the trend and supplying the need.

A noteworthy point is a rather contradicted feeling towards this issue expressed by a 12-year resident and local tourism business owner TNP3:

As much as a resident, you want things to stay pretty much the same... I like to see the tourists because it means business for me, but at the same time, I enjoy the winter when there is no tourists around.

The dilemma along with more development was also stressed by TNP7 (a seven-year resident and Tasmanian Government staff):

It is dangerous to encourage more people because it will change the experience people get there ... What the local people want to see; whether they want more employment in tourism industry or they want to keep the quite lifestyle.

7.2 Perceptions of change associated with current tourism

7.2.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

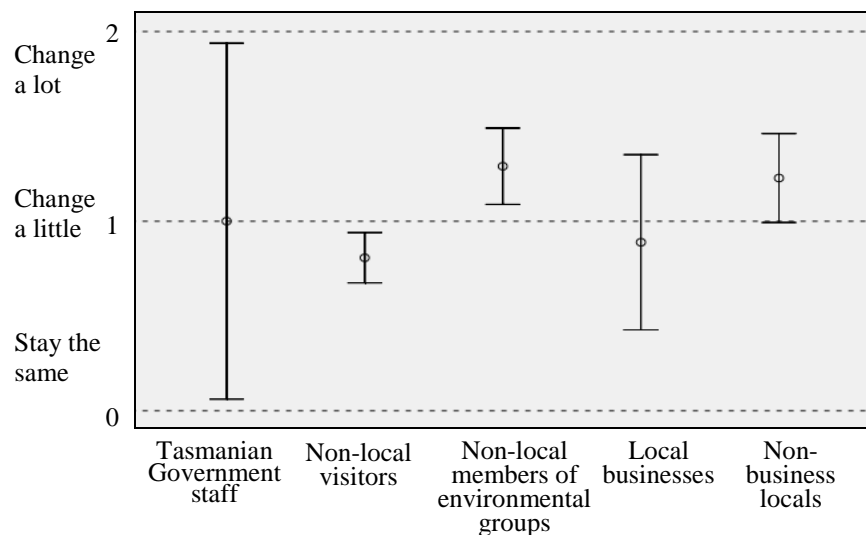
Stakeholder groups' perceptions of change associated with current tourism

A prevalent view was that the site had “changed a little” (Table 7-9). There were different views held by locals and non-locals, with higher percentages of the non-locals expressing “not sure” (29.2%, 17.4% and 14.3%) than locals (0% and 8.3%). Diversity in the *perceptions of change* was also revealed by all respondents, with 38.9% “changed a little”, 23.5% “not sure”, 20.2% thought it had “stayed the same” and 17.4% thought it had “changed a lot”. The divergence was also expressed by various stakeholder groups, such as ‘Tasmanian Government staff’, with 28.6% of them perceived it “changed a little”, “changed a lot”, or “stayed the same”. Non-business locals had noticed more alterations than local businesses. For non-locals, people with environmental interests also observed more changes, with a higher proportion of ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ (30.4%) considering it had “changed a lot” compared with ‘non-local visitors’ (12.4%).

Table 7-9 –Perceptions of change in the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=247)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=161)</i>	
Changed a little	38.9	Changed a little	32.3
Not sure	23.5	Not sure	29.2
Stayed same	20.2	Stayed same	26.1
Changed a lot	17.4	Changed a lot	12.4
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=46)</i>	
Changed a little	66.7	Changed a little	45.7
Stayed same	22.2	Changed a lot	30.4
Changed a lot	11.1	Not sure	17.4
Not sure	0.0	Stayed same	6.5
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=7)</i>	
Changed a little	62.5	Changed a little	28.6
Changed a lot	25.0	Stayed same	28.6
Not sure	8.3	Changed a lot	28.6
Stayed same	4.2	Not sure	14.3

The result of the CI analysis of *perceptions of change* in relation to stakeholder groups is illustrated Figure 7.4. There is a significant difference between ‘non-local visitors’ and two stakeholder groups – ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ and ‘non-business locals’.

**Figure 7.4 – CIs of perceptions of change in the Bay**

Factors of respondents’ perceptions of change associated with current tourism

Correlating variables that might influence respondents’ perceptions of change are identified and summarised in Table 7-10. Note that four variables- *length of property ownership*, *total frequency of visitation*, *stakeholder cohort type* and *attitudes to the current level of tourism developments*- were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-10 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of correlating variables of perceptions of change in the Bay

<i>Dependent variable-Perceptions of change</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	185	1.76	2	0.415
		Age	183	5.60	4	0.231
		Level of education completed	180	1.33	4	0.856
		Employment category	189	0.43a	2	0.808
Connection with the Bay	Ownership	Property	189	6.78	2	0.034*
		House	22	3.59 ^a	2	0.166
		Shack	22	4.75 ^a	2	0.093
		Land	22	0.74 ^a	2	0.690
	Length of property ownership		14	10.58 ^a	4	0.032*
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	186	0.91	2	0.635
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	159	9.33	2	0.009**
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	159	10.31	2	0.006**
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	184	0.98 ^a	2	0.611
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	188	7.87	2	0.020*
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	188	0.36	2	0.834
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	184	0.01	2	0.993
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	182	18.76	2	0.000***
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	182	0.73	2	0.695
	Familiarity with the Bay	Awareness of the Bay	189	2.80 ^a	2	0.247
		Visitation to the Bay	189	2.80 ^a	2	0.247
		Total frequency of visitation	184	24.25 ^a	6	0.000***
		Total length of visitation	186	39.48	4	0.000***
Interaction with the Bay	Frequency of visitation in the past one year		188	3.11	6	0.795
	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Relaxing	189	0.96	2	0.619
		Camping	189	3.70	2	0.157
		Spending time with family or friends	189	0.45	2	0.800
		Fishing	189	0.57	2	0.754
		Boating	189	3.89	2	0.143
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	189	2.76	2	0.252
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	189	0.12	2	0.940
		Swimming	189	0.84	2	0.657
		Day bushwalking	189	3.30	2	0.192
		Overnight bushwalking	189	2.94	2	0.230
		Walking for exercise	189	0.84	2	0.658
		Cycling	189	0.91	2	0.635
		Sightseeing	189	0.77	2	0.680
		Motor sports	189	2.42 ^a	2	0.299
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	187	1.64	2	0.440
		To be with friends	187	4.08	2	0.130
		To be close to nature or away from city	187	1.04	2	0.594
		To enjoy the scenery	187	1.68	2	0.432
		To do the activities	187	4.38	2	0.112
		To enjoy the freedom	187	4.00	2	0.135
		To experience different lifestyle	187	1.64	2	0.441
		To meet new people	187	0.10	2	0.950
		To learn about the history or nature	187	2.11	2	0.348
		To work (tourism related)	187	0.19 ^a	2	0.907
		To work (not tourism related)	187	2.67 ^a	2	0.263
	Number of companion		184	10.93 ^a	6	0.090
	Time of visitation	Week days	186	3.53	2	0.171
		Weekends	186	2.31	2	0.315
		Public holidays	186	2.07	2	0.355
		Easter holidays	186	2.44	2	0.296
		Summer holidays	186	1.53	2	0.466
		School holidays	186	1.02	2	0.601
	Special family occasions		186	3.66	2	0.160
	Length of each visitation		188	2.31	4	0.678
	Stakeholder cohort type		189	20.84 ^a	6	0.002***
	Senses of place	Emotional attachment	165	1.48	2	0.477
		Functional attachment	179	3.51	2	0.173
	Attitudes to tourism developments		172	24.98a	4	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

The majority of those who had lived the longest in Tasmania considered the site had “changed a little” (Table 7-11) with a higher proportion considering the place had “changed a lot” (29.0% compared with 4.5%). Those who had lived the longest in Tasmania are more likely to notice more changes. Conversely, those who had lived the longest in mainland Australia have a tendency to observe fewer changes.

Table 7-11 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of change* by *longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)*

	% within <i>longest residency</i>		Total
	Mainland Australia	Tasmania	
Had stayed the same	47.7	19.6	26.4
Had changed a little	47.7	51.4	50.5
Had changed a lot	4.5	29.0	23.1
Total	100	100	100

Total length of visitation

The majority of those who had visited the Bay for more than ten years considered the place had “changed a little” while the majority of those who had visited for less than ten years thought the place had “stayed the same” (Table 7-12). A noteworthy point is that the longer people had visited, the higher proportions of them thought the place had changed (37.5% compared with 19.2% and 10.2%). This reveals the longer people had visited, the more alterations they had noticed.

Table 7-12 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of change* by *total length of visitation*

	% within <i>total length of visitation</i>			Total
	0-10 years	10.5-25 years	>25 years	
Had stayed the same	57.1	19.2	10.9	26.3
Had changed a little	32.7	61.6	51.6	50.5
Had changed a lot	10.2	19.2	37.5	23.1
Total	100	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

The widely held view of the interviewees was that the Bay had changed a little with some exceptions. For example, RB2 (34-year shack owner) and RB6 (volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy and past five-year government staff) indicated that the Bay looked the same. On the other hand, others had perceived more alterations, such as more visitors and upgraded facilities like new toilets (a 15-year regular visitor RB21) and a lot of little changes (a 37-year shack owner RB1-1).

Although no direct association was discovered between the length of visitation and the *perceptions of change* in the Bay, some specific differences were only noticed by people who had long association with the place. For example, the altering natural landscape

was only detected by RB14 (40-year visitor and 19-year shack owner), who observed the eucalypts dying back in the National Park as well as along the coastline. The bridge being improved was obvious to RB1-1 (a 37-year shack owner) and RB18 (a 50-year visitor). A 20-year visitor and partner of shack owner RB4-2 thought there were more shacks which were not obvious to a seven-year Far South resident RB5.

The sensitivity to the differences was related with the activities that interested people. For example, a five-year regular camper RB20 who went boating noticed the demolished boat ramp. More logging operations were only mentioned by RB3 who enjoyed cycling in the state forests as well as RB13 who was a campaigner for saving the Northeast Peninsula from logging. More populated camp sites were perceived by a 50-year regular camper RB15 while more people on the beach were observed by a 36-year shack owner RB4-1 who enjoyed walking on the beach.

The purpose of the visitation also contributed to the sensitivity to changes. For example, a 40-year visitor and 19-year shack owner RB14 who enjoyed the peaceful and quiet atmosphere of the place observed more visitors after the campaign for the Northeast Peninsula, and avoided visiting during the peak time. A 60-year Moss Glen shack owner RB16 who lived there most of the time believed: “the only difference I notice is the traffic on the road”. As a result of augmented visitors, a five-year regular camper RB20 perceived more damages:

It never used to get that stage, before, because the people who came down there are usually the same types of people. They sort to stop people from damaging, like cut down trees. It's the people who only came down here once that would damage or the clearing of the place.

7.2.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of change associated with current tourism

The greater part of the respondents believed the Park had “changed a little” (57.7%) while 19.5% supposed it had “changed a lot” and 14.6% thought it had “stayed the same” (Table 7-13). The majority of every stakeholder group considered the site had “changed a little”. The following acknowledged view can be divided into two groups. ‘Local businesses’ and ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ regarded the Park as “the same”.

Others like ‘local members of environmental groups’, ‘other locals’, and ‘non-local visitors’ felt the Park had “changed a lot”.

Table 7-13 –Perceptions of change in the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=364)</i>			
Change a little	57.7		
Change a lot	19.5		
Stay same	14.6		
Not sure	8.2		
<i>Local-businesses (n=26)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=111)</i>	
Changed a little	69.2	Changed a little	49.5
Stayed same	23.1	Changed a lot	23.4
Changed a lot	7.7	Stayed same	14.4
Not sure	0.0	Not sure	12.6
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=70)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=68)</i>	
Changed a little	60.0	Changed a little	61.8
Changed a lot	20.0	Changed a lot	20.6
Stayed same	14.3	Stayed same	11.8
Not sure	5.7	Not sure	5.9
<i>Local-others (n=73)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
Changed a little	56.2	Changed a little	75.0
Changed a lot	17.8	Stayed same	12.5
Stayed same	15.1	Changed a lot	12.5
Not sure	11.0	Not sure	0.0

The CIs for *perceptions of change* in relation to stakeholder groups is presented in Figure 7.5. No significant difference was detected between the Park stakeholder groups.

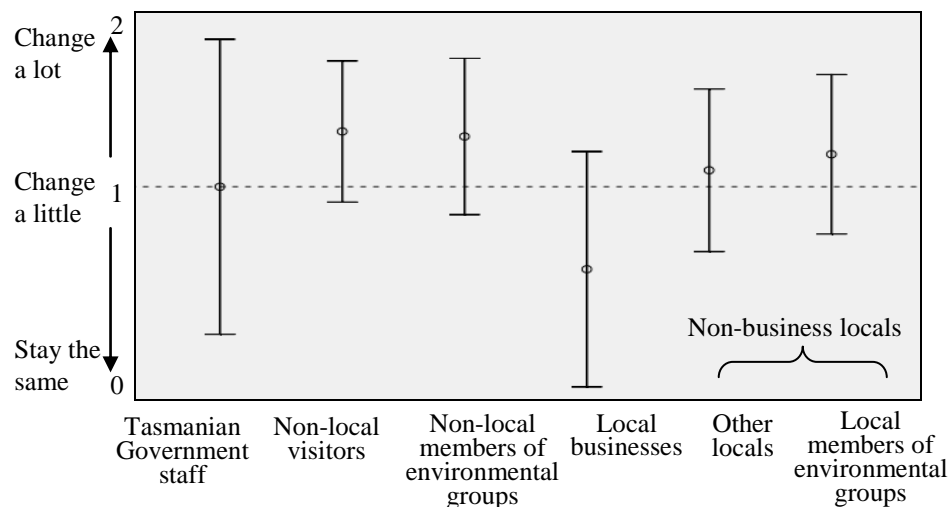


Figure 7.5 – CIs of perceptions of change in relation to the Park’s stakeholder groups

The CIs for *perceptions of change* in the Park in relation to three environmental groups are given in Figure 7.6. There is no significant difference among the three environmental groups.

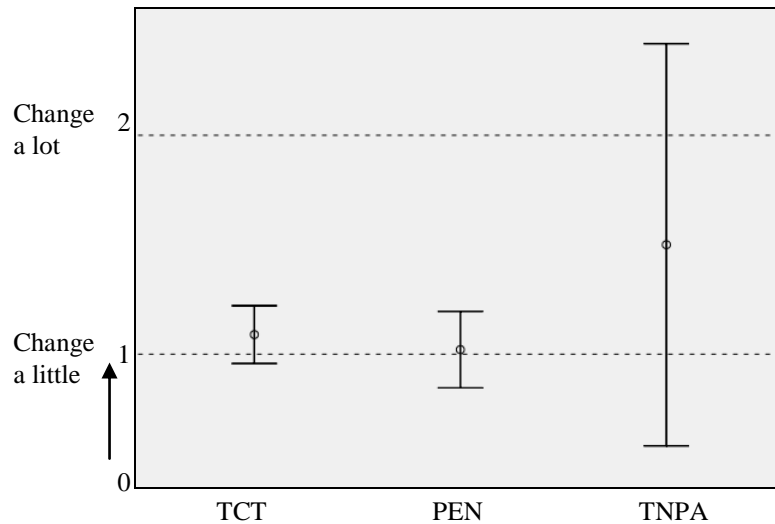


Figure 7.6 –CIs of *perceptions of change* in the Park in relation to three environmental groups

Factors of respondents' perceptions of change associated with current tourism

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' perceptions of the degree of change are identified and summarised in Table 7-14. Note that two variables- *land ownership* and *length of each visitation*- were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-14 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of respondents’ perceptions of change in the Park

<i>Dependent variable-Perceptions of the degree of change</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	329	2.30	2	0.316
		Age	323	10.94	8	0.205
		Level of education completed	324	0.27	4	0.992
		Employment category	334	0.34	2	0.846
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property	331	0.34	2	0.844
		House	140	2.27	2	0.322
		Shack	140	1.74	2	0.420
		Land	140	10.33a	2	0.006**
	Length of property ownership		136	11.03	4	0.026*
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	329	0.32	2	0.854
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	261	4.15	2	0.126
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	146	0.05a	2	0.975
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	331	1.21a	2	0.547
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	332	0.19a	2	0.908
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	331	3.17	2	0.075
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	330	0.06	2	0.972
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	305	22.15	2	0.000***
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	227	0.93	2	0.629
	Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park	334	3.72a	2	0.156
		Visitation to the Park	334	N/A		
		Total frequency of visitation	328	18.79	4	0.001***
		Total length of visitation	321	32.14	4	0.000***
Interaction with the Park	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Frequency of visitation in the past one year	327	7.12	6	0.310
		Sightseeing	331	4.53	2	0.104
		Fishing	331	6.83	2	0.033
		Boating	331	2.30	2	0.316
		Sailing	331	1.88	2	0.391
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	331	0.73	2	0.694
		Surfing	331	0.36	2	0.835
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	331	0.60	2	0.741
		Swimming	331	0.55	2	0.759
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	331	1.62a	2	0.445
		Hang gliding	331	0.59a	2	0.743
		Day bushwalking	331	1.73	2	0.421
		Overnight bushwalking	331	0.94	2	0.627
		Camping	331	1.69	2	0.429
		Picnicking	331	2.44	2	0.296
	Purpose of visitation	Relaxing	331	0.82	2	0.662
		Spending time with family or friends	331	0.49	2	0.781
		Cycling	331	2.95	2	0.228
		To be with family	325	0.90	2	0.639
		To be with friends	325	0.95	2	0.623
		To be close to nature or away from city	325	1.40	2	0.498
		To enjoy the scenery	325	2.91	2	0.233
		To do the activities	325	2.39	2	0.302
		To enjoy the freedom	325	3.45	2	0.178
		To experience different lifestyle	325	3.53	2	0.172
		To meet new people	325	0.10a	2	0.949
		To learn about the history or nature	325	0.40	2	0.817
		To work (tourism related)	325	0.62	2	0.734
		To work (not tourism related)	325	0.48a	2	0.788
	Number of companion		313	8.22a	6	0.222
	Time of visitation	Week days	324	2.20	2	0.333
		Weekends	324	0.58	2	0.749
		Public holidays	324	1.87	2	0.393
		Easter holidays	324	1.07	2	0.585
		Summer holidays	324	0.12	2	0.941
		School holidays	324	2.70	2	0.260
		Special family occasions	324	1.19	2	0.551
	Length of each visitation		325	12.37a	4	0.015
	Stakeholder cohort type		334	7.02	10	0.724
	Sense of place	Emotional attachment	300	0.20	2	0.906
		Functional attachment	306	2.71	2	0.258
	Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development	308	4.18	4	0.382

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

Longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

More than half of the respondents believed the Park had “changed a little” with little difference between the two groups (Table 7-15). There is a higher proportion of those who had lived the longest in Tasmania considering the Park had “changed a lot” (23.8% compared with 12.8%) while there is a higher proportion of those who had lived the longest in mainland Australia thinking it had “stayed the same”. The results demonstrate that those who had lived the longest in Tasmania tend to observe more changes than those who had lived the longest in mainland Australia.

Table 7-15 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of change* by *longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)*

	% within <i>longest residency</i>		Total
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	
Stayed the same	10.1	32.1	15.7
Changed a little	66.1	55.1	63.3
Changed a lot	23.8	12.8	21.0
Total	100	100	100

Total length of visitation

Table 7-16 shows the majority of the respondents thought the Park had “changed a little”. The results manifest those whose length of visit is over ten years tend to feel the Park had “changed a lot”. On the other hand, those who had visited the Park for ten years and for less than ten years are more liable to think it had “stayed the same”.

Table 7-16 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of change* by *total length of visitation*

	% within <i>total length of visitation</i>			Total
	0-10 years	10.5-25 years	>25 years	
Stayed the same	34.7	11.8	7.6	15.3
Changed a little	54.7	66.7	65.3	63.2
Changed a lot	10.7	21.6	27.1	21.5
Total	100	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

The opinions about the *perception of change* in the Park diverged greatly. Some thought the Park had altered a little whereas others observed a dramatic change. For example, a 12-year resident and a local business manager TNP3 felt the Park had not changed much while a 17-year irregular visitor and Tasmanian Government staff TNP15 noticed some differences since two years ago when starting to visit regularly. On the other hand, a 44-year non-local regular bushwalker TNP16 believed that the Park had altered a lot. Others were not sure about the difference, such as a 12-year resident and eight-year accommodation business owner TNP6, who said: “The number of visitors, who came to stay here, it is hard to say because some years are better than others”.

Although interviewees varied in their *perceptions of the change*, some noticeable differences were reported, such as improved walking tracks (TNP5 50-year resident and local business owner and TNP8 25-year visitor) and the increased tourist volume and fishing boats especially in the Blowhole area (TNP8 and TNP15 17-year irregular visitor and Tasmanian Government staff). More houses or shacks were also built on the private lands near the Park (TNP3 12-year resident and a local business manager, TNP9 ten-year resident and TNP15). A 44-year regular bushwalker TNP16 also observed a shifting shack culture caused by tourism development:

The shack culture was there, fishing and timber was there, but tourism is changing it. I like old shacks. They are very much human artefacts. They provide basic shelter, warmth and a place to cook and sleep basic necessities so you can get on and do what you really came there to do. Houses are more demanding of you and can take you away from your purpose. Tourism has made an impact in the area.

7.3 Current tourism impacts- influence on atmosphere

7.3.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Most respondents perceived that the place atmosphere had been either “stayed the same” or “influenced a little”. Where an altered ambiance was observed, this change was relatively small in magnitude (Table 7-17). The opinions of locals are more strongly directed towards the view that the place atmosphere had changed a little, whereas non-locals' views are more evenly spread amongst the various options. A quarter of all the respondents were “not sure” about their views, with higher percentages of non-locals stating that they were uncertain compared with locals. That is to say, locals were more certain about their *perceptions of influence on the atmosphere* as more than half of them thought the feeling of the Bay had been “influenced a little”.

Table 7-17 –Perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=243)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=157)</i>	
Influence a little	32.9	Stay same	32.5
Stay same	28.8	Not sure	31.8
Not sure	25.1	Influence a little	26.8
Influenced a lot	13.2	Influenced a lot	8.9
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=46)</i>	
Influence a little	55.6	Influence a little	37.0
Stay same	33.3	Influenced a lot	23.9
Influenced a lot	11.1	Stay same	21.7
Not sure	0.0	Not sure	17.4
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=7)</i>	
Influence a little	58.3	Stay same	28.6
Stay same	16.7	Influence a little	28.6
Influenced a lot	16.7	Influenced a lot	28.6
Not sure	8.3	Not sure	14.3

The CIs for *perceptions of influence on the atmosphere* in relation to various stakeholder groups are presented in Figure 7.7. No significant difference among stakeholder groups was found.

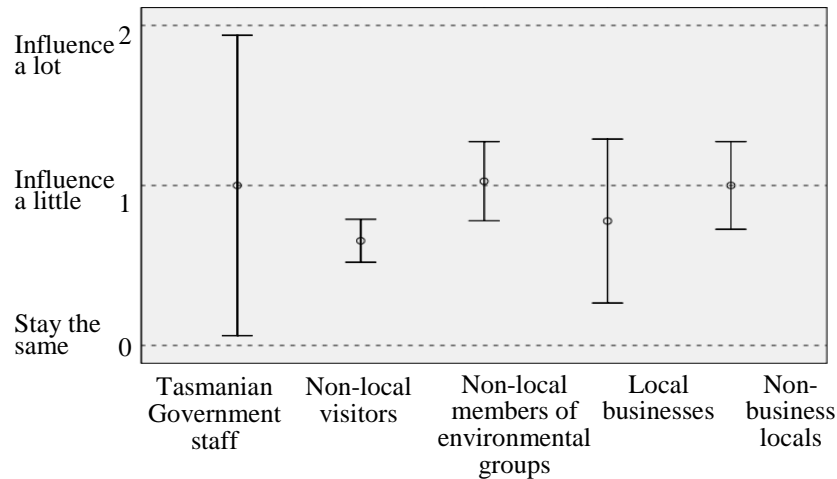


Figure 7.7 – CIs of *perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Bay*

Factors of respondents' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the place are identified and summarised in Table 7-18. Note that four variables- *house ownership*, *shack ownership*, *total frequency of visitation* and *stakeholder cohort type*- were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-18 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *perceptions of influence on atmosphere* of the Bay

<i>Dependent variable-Perceptions of influence on atmosphere</i>				<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender		178	1.95	2	0.378
		Age		176	9.23	4	0.056
		Level of education completed		173	7.88	4	0.096
		Employment category		182	0.75	2	0.686
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property		182	5.757	2	0.057
		House		22	16.71 ^a	2	0.000***
		Shack		22	10.72 ^a	2	0.005**
		Land		22	2.27 ^a	2	0.321
	Length of property ownership			14	6.83 ^a	4	0.145
				179	1.72	2	0.423
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas		155	2.18	2	0.337
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		155	11.23	2	0.004**
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		177	1.31	2	0.520
	Residence place	Australia / Overseas		181	2.33	2	0.312
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		181	0.34	2	0.845
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		177	0.51 ^a	2	0.776
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas		176	7.40	2	0.025*
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		176	1.72	2	0.423
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		182	1.61 ^a	2	0.447
	Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park		182	1.61 ^a	2	0.447
		Visitation to the Park		177	13.21 ^a	6	0.040*
		Total frequency of visitation		178	17.50	4	0.002**
		Total length of visitation		181	3.05	6	0.803
Interaction with the Park	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Relaxing		182	0.28	2	0.868
		Camping		182	2.27	2	0.322
		Spending time with family or friends		182	4.18	2	0.124
		Fishing		182	1.89	2	0.388
		Boating		182	1.79	2	0.410
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing		182	1.21	2	0.545
		Scuba diving or snorkelling		182	0.13	2	0.936
		Swimming		182	0.38	2	0.828
		Day bushwalking		182	2.81	2	0.246
		Overnight bushwalking		182	4.46	2	0.108
		Walking for exercise		182	1.32	2	0.517
		Cycling		182	4.01	2	0.135
		Sightseeing		182	0.93	2	0.629
		Motor sports		182	0.90 ^a	2	0.639
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family		180	1.48	2	0.477
		To be with friends		180	3.22	2	0.070
		To be close to nature or away from city		180	2.49	2	0.289
		To enjoy the scenery		180	1.97	2	0.373
		To do the activities		180	4.75	2	0.093
		To enjoy the freedom		180	6.32	2	0.042*
		To experience different lifestyle		180	0.56	2	0.755
		To meet new people		180	0.64	2	0.728
		To learn about the history or nature		180	1.87	2	0.393
		To work (tourism related)		180	0.12 ^a	2	0.943
		To work (not tourism related)		180	1.93 ^a	2	0.381
	Number of companion			177	8.34 ^a	6	0.215
	Time of visitation	Week days		180	3.07	2	0.215
		Weekends		180	9.18	2	0.010**
		Public holidays		180	6.23	2	0.044*
		Easter holidays		180	0.29	2	0.867
		Summer holidays		180	1.95	2	0.378
		School holidays		180	0.63	2	0.728
		Special family occasions		180	4.08	2	0.130
	Length of each visitation			181	2.72	4	0.607
	Stakeholder cohort type			182	13.61 ^a	6	0.034*
	Sense of place	Emotional attachment		160	0.46	2	0.793
		Functional attachment		171	2.85	2	0.241
	Perceptions of tourism impacts			180	1.80E2	4	0.000***
	Attitudes to tourism developments			165	20.38	4	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

A higher proportion of those who had lived the longest in mainland Australia notice less change – that is they think the Bay has “stayed the same” – than other respondents (Table 7-19). However, those who had lived the longest in Tasmania are more prone to observe more alterations to the atmosphere, with higher proportion considering the ambience had been “influenced a lot” by the changes compared with those who had lived the longest in mainland Australia (22.2% compared with 4.9%).

Table 7-19 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

	% within longest residency		Total
	Mainland Australia	Tasmania	
Stayed the same	51.2	34.8	38.6
Influenced a little	43.9	43.0	43.2
Influenced a lot	4.9	22.2	18.2
Total	100	100	100

Total length of visitation

The analysis illustrates that those who had visited for over twenty-five years are more likely to identify alterations to the feeling of the Bay, with higher proportion feeling the atmosphere had been “influenced a lot” (29.0% compared with 11.4% and 12.5%) (Table 7-20). The result also indicates those who had visited for over ten years are more liable to detect the ambience had been “influenced a little” while those who had visited for ten years and for less than ten years tend to believe the atmosphere had “stayed the same”.

Table 7-20 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by total length of visitation

	% within total length of visitation			Total
	0-10 years	10.5-25 years	>25 years	
Stayed the same	59.1	37.5	24.2	38.2
Influenced a little	29.5	50.0	46.8	43.8
Influenced a lot	11.4	12.5	29.0	18.0
Total	100	100	100	100

Degree of change

The result presented in Table 7-21 shows people who thought the site had ‘changed a little’ are more likely to perceive the feeling of the Bay had been “influenced a little”.

Those who believed the place had ‘changed a lot’ have a tendency to consider the ambience had been “influenced a lot” compared with those who sensed the place had ‘stayed the same’ and ‘changed a little’ (72.1% compared with 0% and 1.1%).

Conversely, people observing the site had ‘stayed the same’ tend to feel the atmosphere had “stayed the same” compared with those considering the place had ‘changed a little’ and ‘changed a lot’ (95.3% compared with 0% and 29.8%).

Table 7-21 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by perceptions of change

	% within degree of change			Total
	Stay the same	Change a little	Change a lot	
Stayed the same	95.3	29.8	0	38.3
Influenced a little	4.7	69.1	27.9	43.9
Influenced a lot	.0	1.1	72.1	17.8
Total	100	100	100	100

Current level of tourism development

There is little difference in the proportion of people perceiving the ambience had “changed a little” by the changes (Table 7-22). Different attitudes were revealed by those noticing the current tourism development ‘about right’ or ‘not enough’ as they are more likely to regard the place atmosphere as “the same”. On the other hand, people who thought the current tourism development ‘too much’ are more liable to judge the atmosphere of the Bay had been “influenced a lot”.

Table 7-22 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by attitudes to current tourism development

	% within current tourism development			Total
	Too much	About right	Not enough	
Stayed the same	19.6	46.7	50.0	39.4
Influenced a little	43.5	43.8	35.7	43.0
Influenced a lot	37.0	9.5	14.3	17.6
Total	100	100	100	100

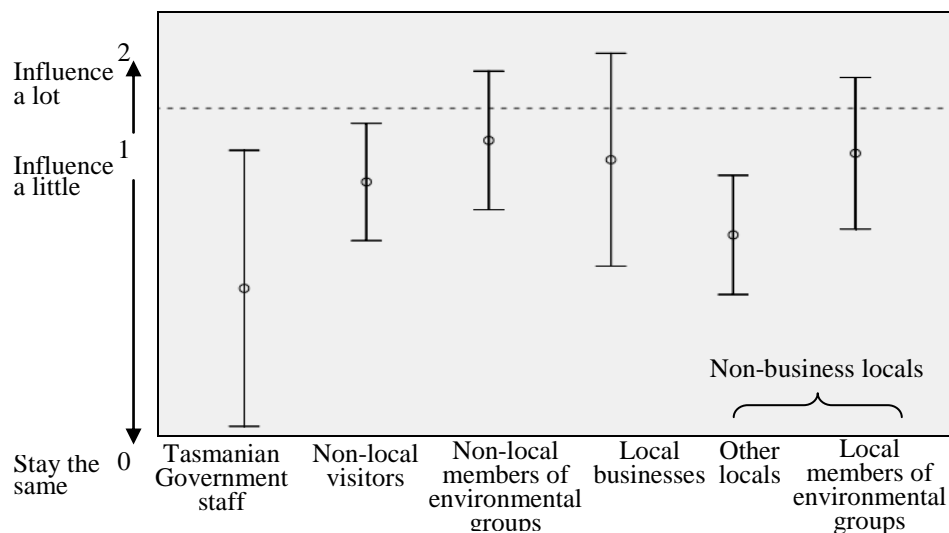
7.3.2 Tasman National Park***Results of questionnaire analysis*****Stakeholder groups’ perceptions of influence on atmosphere**

Table 7-23 shows that 6.9% of the respondents perceived the atmosphere of the Park had been “influenced a little” by the changes they had observed, with 30.3% “stayed the same” and 13.9% “influenced a lot”. That the ambience of the Park had been “influenced a little” was also the common view among all the stakeholder groups. The primary exception was ‘Tasmanian Government staff’, 50.0% of whom who believed it had “stayed the same”. A noteworthy point is that higher proportions of ‘other locals’ and ‘non-local visitors’ were “not sure” (12.2% and 13.6% compared with 4.0%, 4.5% and 0%).

Table 7-23 –Perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=360)</i>			
Influence a little	46.9		
Stay same	30.3		
Influence a lot	13.9		
Not sure	8.9		
<i>Local-businesses (n=25)</i>			
Influence a little	60.0	<i>Non-local visitors (n=110)</i>	41.8
Stay same	24.0	Stay same	30.0
Influenced a lot	12.0	Influenced a lot	14.5
Not sure	4.0	Not sure	13.6
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=67)</i>			
Influence a little	43.3	<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=68)</i>	51.5
Stay same	31.3	Stay same	25.0
Influenced a lot	20.9	Influenced a lot	17.6
Not sure	4.5	Not sure	5.9
<i>Local-others (n=74)</i>			
Influence a little	50.0	<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	50.0
Stay same	32.4	Stay same	43.8
Not sure	12.2	Influenced a lot	6.2
Influenced a lot	5.4	Not sure	0.0

Figure 7.8 shows the CIs for stakeholder groups' perceptions of the influence on the atmosphere of the Park. There is no significant difference among stakeholder groups.

**Figure 7.8 – CIs of perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Park**

The CIs for perceptions of the influence on atmosphere of the Park among three environmental groups is illustrated in Figure 7.9, again indicating no significant difference.

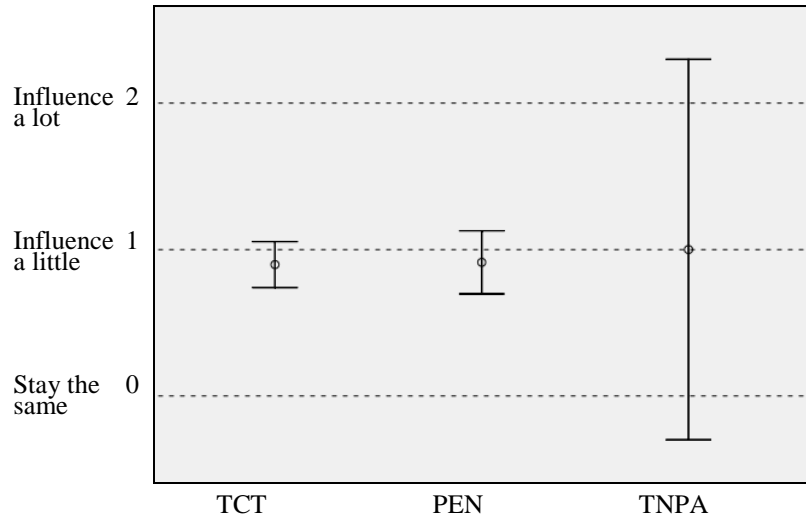


Figure 7.9 – CIs of perceptions of influence on the Park's atmosphere in relation to of three environmental groups of

Factors of respondents' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' perceptions of influence on the atmosphere are identified and summarised in Table 7-24.

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-24 – The results of chi-square test for identifying correlating variables of *perceptions of influence on atmosphere* of the Park

<i>Dependent variable-Perceptions of influence on atmosphere</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	323	0.22	2	0.897
		Age	317	8.29	8	0.406
		Level of education completed	320	9.60	4	0.048*
		Employment category	328	2.25	2	0.325
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property	325	0.49	2	0.784
		House	134	2.06	2	0.357
		Shack	134	0.36	2	0.836
		Land	134	1.30	2	0.522
		Length of property ownership	129	6.24	4	0.182
Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	Australia / Overseas	323	0.78	2	0.676
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	257	5.91	2	0.052
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	143	0.00	2	0.999
Residence	Australia / Overseas	Australia / Overseas	325	1.88a	2	0.391
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	326	0.92	2	0.632
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	305	0.00	2	0.998
Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	Australia / Overseas	324	0.09	2	0.958
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	299	6.98	2	0.030*
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	224	0.13	2	0.938
Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park	Awareness of the Park	328	5.58a	2	0.062
		Visitation to the Park	328	N/A	2	N/A
		Total frequency of visitation	322	21.62	4	0.000***
		Total length of visitation	316	21.75	4	0.000***
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year	321	21.02	6	0.002**
Interaction with the Park	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Sightseeing	325	2.26	2	0.323
		Fishing	325	3.25	2	0.197
		Boating	325	4.32	2	0.115
		Sailing	325	0.77	2	0.680
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	325	1.32	2	0.518
		Surfing	325	0.42	2	0.810
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	325	2.30	2	0.316
		Swimming	325	1.07	2	0.585
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	325	2.39a	2	0.302
		Hang gliding	325	2.04a	2	0.360
		Day bushwalking	325	1.64	2	0.440
		Overnight bushwalking	325	5.16	2	0.076
		Camping	325	1.77	2	0.412
		Picnicking	325	0.31	2	0.858
		Relaxing	325	0.33	2	0.847
		Spending time with family or friends	325	0.02	2	0.989
		Cycling	325	1.48	2	0.478
Purpose of visitation	To be with family	To be with family	319	1.89	2	0.389
		To be with friends	319	2.60	2	0.272
		To be close to nature or away from city	319	2.21	2	0.331
		To enjoy the scenery	319	0.00	2	0.998
		To do the activities	319	3.14	2	0.208
		To enjoy the freedom	319	2.13	2	0.346
		To experience different lifestyle	319	0.92	2	0.632
		To meet new people	319	1.61	2	0.446
		To learn about the history or nature	319	1.37	2	0.503
		To work (tourism related)	319	0.17	2	0.919
		To work (not tourism related)	319	1.32a	2	0.516
		Number of companion	307	3.62a	6	0.728
Time of visitation	Week days	Week days	318	4.60	2	0.100
		Weekends	318	0.93	2	0.629
		Public holidays	318	3.51	2	0.173
		Easter holidays	318	1.87	2	0.392
		Summer holidays	318	0.18	2	0.916
		School holidays	318	0.34	2	0.845
		Special family occasions	318	2.75	2	0.253
		Length of each visitation	319	3.48a	4	0.481
Stakeholder cohorts			328	11.94	10	0.289
Sense of place	Emotional attachment	Emotional attachment	293	3.27	2	0.195
		Functional attachment	299	7.43	2	0.024*
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		325	2.03E2	4	0.000***
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development		303	11.11	4	0.025*

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

Longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

The majority of respondents perceived the atmosphere had “stayed the same” or been “influenced a little” (Table 7-25). However, a higher portion of Tasmanian respondents who considered that the atmosphere had been “influenced a lot”, compared with those from the mainland.

Table 7-25 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by longest residency (Tasmania or mainland Australia)

	% within <i>longest residency</i>		Total
	Tasmania	Mainland Australia	
Stayed the same	29.0	45.3	33.1
Influenced a little	54.5	44.0	51.8
Influenced a lot	16.5	10.7	15.1
Total	100	100	100

Total length of visitation

Table 7-26 shows that the majority of respondents perceived the atmosphere had “stayed the same” or been “influenced a little”, regardless of the length of time they had been visiting the area. Nonetheless, a clear trend is evident, in that a higher portion of long-standing visitors (those who had been visiting for more than 25 years) found that the atmosphere had been “influenced a lot” compared with shorter-term visitors. Conversely, the shorter the length of contact with the area, the more likely that the visitor would perceive that the atmosphere had “stayed the same”.

Table 7-26 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by total length of visitation

	% within <i>total length of visitation</i>			Total
	0-10 years	10.5-25 years	>25 years	
Stayed the same	52.7	29.0	26.1	33.2
Influenced a little	36.5	60.0	52.1	50.9
Influenced a lot	10.8	11.0	21.8	15.8
Total	100	100	100	100

Degree of change

The results in Table 7-27 indicate that those thinking the Park had not in general changed over the years that they have been visiting also thought that the atmosphere of the Park had “stayed the same”. Where degrees of change in the park were observed, these were also correlated with a change in atmosphere. In other words, the degree of change in the park corresponds to a change in atmosphere.

Table 7-27 – Cross-tabulation of perceptions of influence on atmosphere by perceptions of change

	% within <i>degree of change</i>			Total
	Stay the same	Change a little	Change a lot	
Stayed the same	91.8	28.6	4.3	32.9
Influenced a little	6.1	67.0	38.6	51.7
Influenced a lot	2.0	4.4	57.1	15.4
Total	100	100	100	100

Current level of tourism development

Those who thought the current tourism development in the Park ‘about right’ and ‘not enough’ tend to believe the atmosphere of the Park had “stayed the same” (Table 7-28). Those who considered the current tourism development in the Park ‘too much’ tend to believe the atmosphere had been “influenced a lot”. For those respondents who thought the atmosphere had been “influenced a little”, there is little difference among those with various attitudes to the current tourism development.

Table 7-28 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of influence on atmosphere* by *attitudes to the current level of tourism development*

	% within <i>current level of tourism development</i>			Total
	Too much tourism	About right	Not enough tourism	
Stayed the same	20.4	35.5	40.7	34.0
Influenced a little	51.0	52.0	48.1	51.2
Influenced a lot	28.6	8.3	2.0	14.9
Total	100	100	100	100

Sense of place as correlating variables***Functional attachment (see Chapter 4)***

The majority of those who felt a functional attachment considered that the atmosphere had been “influenced a little” (Table 7-29). There was also a higher proportion of those with a functional attachment who considered the atmosphere had been “influenced a lot”, indicating that those with a functional attachment for the Park tend to consider the atmosphere had either been “influenced a little” or “a lot”. On the other hand, those expressing little or no functional attachment for the Park are more likely to observe no alteration to the atmosphere.

Table 7-29 – Cross-tabulation of *perceptions of influence on atmosphere* by *functional attachment*

	% within <i>functional attachment</i>		Total
	Had no attachment	Had attachment	
Stayed the same	51.1	30.3	33.4
Influenced a little	37.8	53.5	51.2
Influenced a lot	11.1	16.1	15.4
Total	100	100	100

7.4 Current tourism impacts- site attractiveness

7.4.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of site attractiveness

The majority of all stakeholder groups considered that the Bay has remained as desirable as in the past, while the next highest level of option was for the area becoming “less desirable” (Table 7-30). However, ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ differed from other stakeholder groups, with 48.9% observing it “less desirable” and 36.2% “the same”. Another difference is that none of ‘non-business locals’ chose “not sure” whereas the proportions of other stakeholder groups choosing “not sure” range from 12.5% to 22.2%. A noteworthy point is that ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ and ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ are the only two groups in which no respondent perceived the Bay to be “more desirable”.

Table 7-30 –Perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=238)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=150)</i>	
Same	52.1	Same	56.0
Less desirable	24.8	Not sure	20.0
Not sure	16.8	Less desirable	16.7
More desirable	6.3	More desirable	7.3
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=47)</i>	
Same	44.4	Less desirable	48.9
Less desirable	22.2	Same	36.2
Not sure	22.2	Not sure	14.9
More desirable	11.1	More desirable	0.0
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Same	62.5	Same	50.0
Less desirable	25.0	Less desirable	37.5
More desirable	12.5	Not sure	12.5
Not sure	0.0	More desirable	0.0

The CIs for *perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Bay* show a significant variation among three groups (Figure 7.10) - ‘non-local visitors’, ‘non-local members of environmental groups’ and ‘non-business locals’.

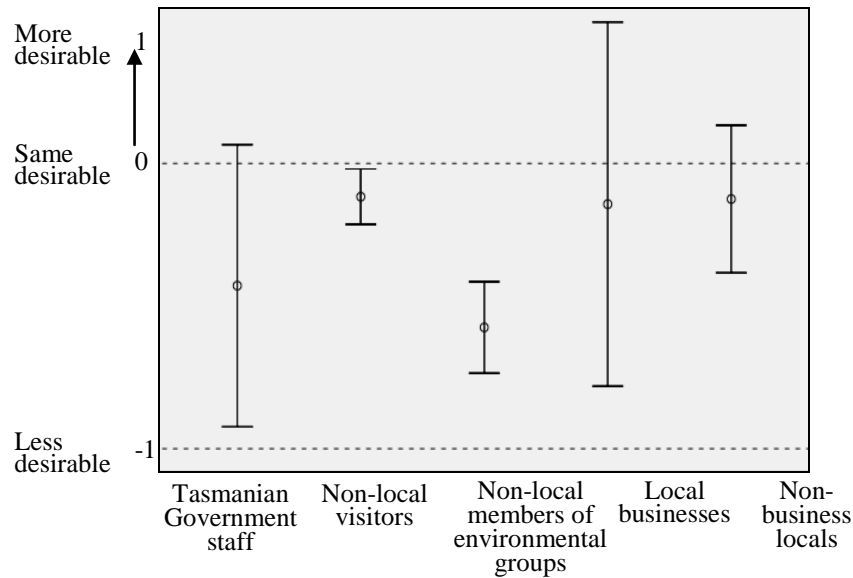


Figure 7.10 –CIs of *perceptions of influence on attraction of the Bay*

Factors of respondents' perceptions of site attractiveness

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' *perceptions of the influence on the place attraction* are summarised in Table 7-31. Six variables- *activity (motor sports)*, *number of companion*, *stakeholder cohort type*, *perceptions of the degree of change*, *perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Bay* and *attitudes to the current level of tourism developments*- were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-31 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *perceptions of influence on place attraction of the Bay*

Dependent variable-Perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Bay			n	χ^2	df	p
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	194	2.98	2	0.225
		Age	191	6.46 ^a	4	0.167
		Level of education completed	188	5.82	4	0.213
		Employment category	198	3.32a	2	0.190
Bay	Connection with the Ownership	Property	198	0.80	2	0.670
		House	23	1.84 ^a	2	0.399
		Shack	23	3.51 ^a	2	0.173
		Land	23	1.06 ^a	2	0.590
	Length of property ownership		14	5.08 ^a	4	0.279
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	194	1.08	2	0.583
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	167	1.68	2	0.432
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	167	1.95	2	0.378
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	193	2.34a	2	0.310
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	197	0.53	2	0.769
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	197	4.54	2	0.103
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	194	4.27 ^a	2	0.118
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	191	3.40	2	0.182
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	191	5.92	2	0.052
	Familiarity with the Bay	Awareness of the Bay		198	0.60 ^a	2
Visitation to the Bay		198	0.48 ^a	2	0.786	
Total frequency of visitation		192	8.69 ^a	6	0.192	
Total length of visitation		193	9.07 ^a	4	0.059	
Frequency of visitation in the past one year		196	11.08	6	0.086	
Interaction with the Bay	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Relaxing	198	0.10	2	0.951
		Camping	198	5.23	2	0.073
		Spending time with family or friends	198	2.86	2	0.240
		Fishing	198	5.84	2	0.054
		Boating	198	3.11	2	0.211
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	198	5.11	2	0.078
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	198	1.67	2	0.434
		Swimming	198	1.22	2	0.543
		Day bushwalking	198	1.21	2	0.545
		Overnight bushwalking	198	4.77	2	0.092
		Walking for exercise	198	1.02	2	0.600
		Cycling	198	4.41 ^a	2	0.110
		Sightseeing	198	0.95	2	0.623
		Motor sports	198	6.29 ^a	2	0.043*
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	195	4.10	2	0.129
		To be with friends	195	1.98	2	0.372
		To be close to nature or away from city	195	1.76	2	0.416
		To enjoy the scenery	195	0.42	2	0.810
		To do the activities	195	1.89	2	0.389
		To enjoy the freedom	195	3.83	2	0.147
		To experience different lifestyle	195	3.40	2	0.182
		To meet new people	195	6.42	2	0.040*
		To learn about the history or nature	195	0.42	2	0.811
	Number of companion	To work (tourism related)	195	0.52 ^a	2	0.769
		To work (not tourism related)	195	1.06 ^a	2	0.589
			192	14.45 ^a	6	0.025*
	Time of visitation	Week days	193	4.94	2	0.085
		Weekends	193	0.02	2	0.988
		Public holidays	193	3.43	2	0.180
		Easter holidays	193	1.10	2	0.577
		Summer holidays	193	0.09	2	0.958
		School holidays	193	0.21	2	0.900
		Special family occasions	193	0.27	2	0.873
	Length of each visitation		195	2.72 ^a	4	0.605
Stakeholder cohort type			198	22.90 ^a	6	0.001***
Sense of place	Emotional attachment		174	2.59	2	0.274
	Functional attachment		187	5.78	2	0.056
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		182	42.63 ^a	4	0.000***
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		176	45.00 ^a	4	0.000***
Attitudes to tourism developments			178	23.55 ^a	4	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

7.4.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of site attractiveness

The view held by most respondents, and across all stakeholder groups, was that the desirability of the Park has remained “the same”, though a substantial number thought it less desirable than in the past (Table 7-32). Figure 7.11, which shows the CIs of *perceptions of influence on the attraction* of the Park, shows that there was no significant difference between the groups. The CIs for the three environmental groups (Figure 7.12) indicate that there was a significant difference between TNPA and the other two groups (TCT, and PEN).

Table 7-32 –Perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=357)</i>			
Same	65.8		
Less desirable	19.3		
More desirable	8.4		
Not sure	6.4		
<i>Local-businesses (n=25)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=107)</i>	
Same	76.0	Same	60.7
Less desirable	16.0	Less desirable	15.9
More desirable	4.0	More desirable	15.0
Not sure	4.0	Not sure	8.4
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=68)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=68)</i>	
Same	66.2	Same	66.2
Less desirable	25.0	Less desirable	25.0
More desirable	5.9	More desirable	4.4
Not sure	2.9	Not sure	4.4
<i>Local-others (n=73)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
Same	65.8	Same	81.2
Less desirable	16.4	Less desirable	12.5
Not sure	11.0	More desirable	6.2
More desirable	6.8	Not sure	0.0

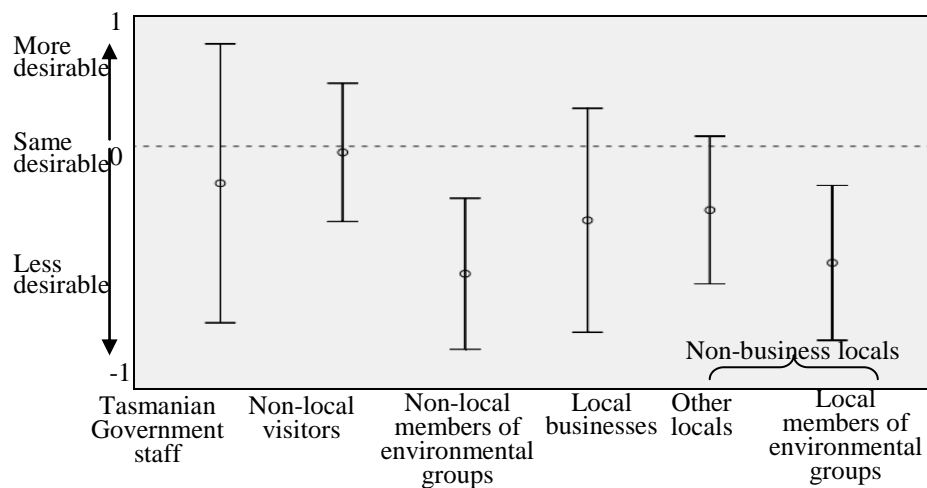


Figure 7.11 –CIs of perceptions of influence on attraction of the Park

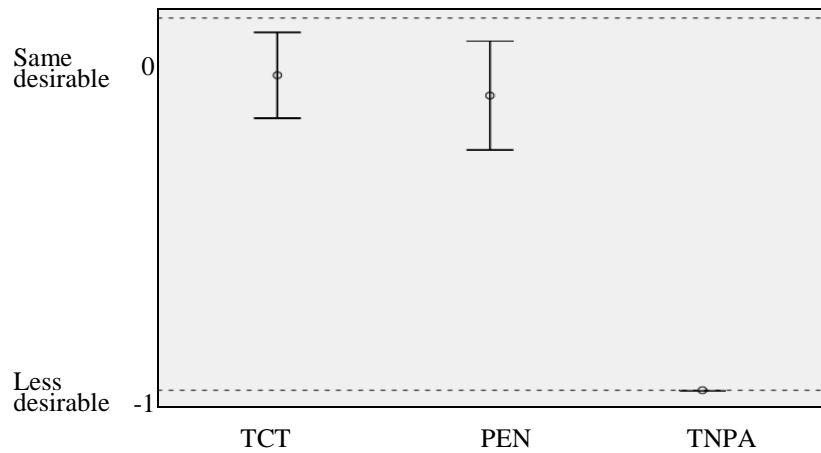


Figure 7.12 – CIs of *perceptions of influence on attraction of the Park* among three environmental groups

Factors of respondents' perceptions of site attractiveness

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' *perceptions of influence on the attraction* are given in Table 7-33. Three variables – *awareness of the Park*, *activity undertaken (abseiling or rock climbing)* and *attitudes to the current level of tourism developments* – were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-33 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Park*

<i>Dependent variable-Perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Park</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	329	2.13	2	0.345
		Age	324	13.57	8	0.094
		Level of education completed	326	3.45	4	0.486
		Employment category	334	0.68	2	0.712
	Connection with the Park	Ownership	331	1.32	2	0.516
		Property	137	10.90	2	0.004**
		House	137	2.28	2	0.320
		Shack	137	1.89a	2	0.389
		Land	131	2.43a	4	0.658
		Length of property ownership	330	1.52	2	0.468
		Birthplace	261	1.74	2	0.420
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	145	0.08a	2	0.960
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	331	3.81a	2	0.149
		Residence	333	0.73a	2	0.696
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	314	0.38	2	0.828
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	331	1.26	2	0.533
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	305	4.50	2	0.106
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	225	0.01	2	0.997
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	334	10.16a	2	0.006**
		Visitation to the Park	334	N/A		N/A
	Familiarity with the Park	Total frequency of visitation	328	7.49	4	0.112
		Total length of visitation	322	2.77	4	0.597
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year	328	7.43	6	0.283
	Interaction with the Park	Activities undertaken during the visitation	331	14.75	2	0.001***
		Sightseeing	331	1.23	2	0.540
		Fishing	331	2.05	2	0.359
		Boating	331	0.40	2	0.819
		Sailing	331	2.78	2	0.249
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	331	0.07	2	0.965
		Surfing	331	0.69	2	0.710
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	331	1.57	2	0.456
		Swimming	331	7.89a	2	0.019*
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	331	3.81a	2	0.149
		Hang gliding	331	1.84	2	0.399
		Day bushwalking	331	16.85	2	0.000***
		Overnight bushwalking	331	3.48	2	0.176
		Camping	331	1.69	2	0.429
		Picnicking	331	7.60	2	0.022*
		Relaxing	331	3.60	2	0.165
		Spending time with family or friends	331	5.76	2	0.056
		Cycling	326	3.43	2	0.180
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	326	4.42	2	0.110
		To be with friends	326	3.18	2	0.204
		To be close to nature or away from city	326	2.32	2	0.313
		To enjoy the scenery	326	2.54	2	0.281
		To do the activities	326	0.19	2	0.910
		To enjoy the freedom	326	0.60	2	0.740
		To experience different lifestyle	326	0.09a	2	0.958
		To meet new people	326	0.54	2	0.764
		To learn about the history or nature	326	5.96a	2	0.051
		To work (tourism related)	326	0.60a	2	0.741
	Number of companion	To work (not tourism related)	313	8.91a	6	0.178
		Week days	325	4.37	2	0.112
		Weekends	325	0.14	2	0.932
		Public holidays	325	6.07	2	0.048*
		Easter holidays	325	2.09	2	0.352
		Summer holidays	325	0.08	2	0.962
		School holidays	325	0.00	2	1.000
		Special family occasions	325	1.21	2	0.545
	Length of each visitation		325	8.84a	4	0.065
	Stakeholder cohort type		334	12.85a	10	0.232
	Sense of place	Emotional attachment	298	0.72	2	0.699
		Functional attachment	305	2.62	2	0.269
	Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change	320	36.28	4	0.000***
		Degree of influence on place atmosphere	315	62.78	4	0.000***
	Attitudes to tourism developments		308	28.42a	4	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

7.5 Attitudes towards potential tourism expansion

7.5.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Attitudes of stakeholder groups towards potential tourism expansion

Table 7-34 shows respondents on the whole favoured “campground with designated sites”, “no development”, and “dispersed camping with no or very limited facilities”.

The idea of a “nature-based lodge” was also rated highly by the Tasmanian Government staff compared to other stakeholder groups. “No development” was one of the top three choices only amongst ‘non-business locals’ and ‘non-local visitors’.

Table 7-34 – Attitudes to appropriate potential new tourism operation in the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=307)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=190)</i>	
Designated campground	40.4	No development	45.3
No development	39.4	Dispersed camping	34.7
Dispersed camping	33.2	Designated campground	32.6
Nature-based lodge	27.4	Nature-based lodge	22.1
Caravan park	10.1	Caravan park	8.4
B&B accommodation	6.5	B&B accommodation	4.2
Others	3.3	Other operation	3.2
Small hotel or motel	2.3	Small hotel or motel	1.6
Serviced apartment	0.7	Major hotel	0.0
Major hotel	0.3	Serviced apartment	0.0
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=76)</i>	
Designated campground	44.4	Designated campground	55.3
Dispersed camping	44.4	Nature-based lodge	39.5
Nature-based lodge	22.2	Dispersed camping	34.2
Caravan park	22.2	No development	28.9
B&B accommodation	11.1	Caravan park	13.2
No development	11.1	B&B accommodation	11.8
Major hotel	0.0	Small hotel or motel	2.6
Small hotel or motel	0.0	Other operation	2.6
Serviced apartment	0.0	Serviced apartment	1.3
Other operation	0.0	Major hotel	0.0
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
No development	45.8	Designated campground	75.0
Designated campground	41.7	Nature-based lodge	62.5
Nature-based lodge	20.8	Dispersed camping	37.5
Caravan park	12.5	Small hotel or motel	12.5
Dispersed camping	12.5	No development	12.5
B&B accommodation	8.3	Major hotel	0.0
Other operation	8.3	Serviced apartment	0.0
Major hotel	4.2	B&B accommodation	0.0
Small hotel or motel	4.2	Caravan park	0.0
Serviced apartment	4.2	Other operation	0.0

Factors of respondents’ attitudes towards potential tourism expansion

Correlating variables that might influence *attitudes to appropriate potential new tourism operation* were identified and summarised in Table 7-35. *Total length of visitation, time of visitation (summer holidays), perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Bay and attitudes to the current level of tourism developments* were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-35 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of respondents' attitudes to appropriate potential new tourism operation in the Bay

Dependent variable-Attitudes to appropriate potential new tourism operation				n	χ^2	df	p	
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender		169	.883	2	.643	
		Age		166	2.713	4	.607	
		Level of education completed		163	1.520 ^a	4	.823	
		Employment category		173	1.605	2	.448	
	Connection to the Bay	Ownership	Property		154	2.282	2	.320
			House		13	.481 ^a	2	.786
			Shack		13	.481 ^a	2	.786
			Land		13	1.051 ^a	2	.591
		Length of property ownership			9	2.250 ^a	2	.325
		Birthplace	Australia / Overseas		170	3.379	2	.185
			Tasmania / Mainland Australia		145	2.774	2	.250
			Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		145	2.173 ^a	2	.337
		Residence	Australia / Overseas		168	1.754 ^a	2	.416
			Tasmania / Mainland Australia		171	6.472	2	.039*
			Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		171	.960	2	.619
		Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas		166	2.374	2	.305
			Tasmania / Mainland Australia		159	8.794	2	.012*
			Far South / Tasmania outside Far South		159	4.267	2	.118
	Familiarity with the Bay	Awareness of the Bay			173	3.722 ^a	2	.156
		Visitation to the Bay			173	5.648 ^a	2	.059
		Total frequency of visitation			149	10.688 ^a	6	.099
		Total length of visitation			146	9.709 ^a	4	.046*
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year			153	10.407 ^a	6	.109
	Interaction with the Bay	Activities during the visitation	Relaxing		153	.975	2	.614
			Camping		153	1.485	2	.476
			Spending time with family or friends		153	.071	2	.965
			Fishing		153	4.406	2	.110
			Boating		153	2.813	2	.245
			Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing		153	2.504	2	.286
			Scuba diving or snorkelling		153	.437	2	.804
			Swimming		153	4.400	2	.111
			Day bushwalking		153	.024	2	.988
			Overnight bushwalking		153	2.990	2	.224
			Walking for exercise		153	2.589	2	.274
Cycling				153	1.215	2	.545	
Sightseeing				153	.214	2	.899	
Motor sports				153	1.649 ^a	2	.438	
Purpose of visitation		To be with family		150	.716	2	.699	
		To be with friends		150	2.080	2	.354	
		To be close to nature or away from city		150	2.815	2	.245	
		To enjoy the scenery		150	.198	2	.906	
		To do the activities		150	.468	2	.792	
		To enjoy the freedom		150	3.725	2	.155	
		To experience different lifestyle		150	1.257	2	.533	
		To meet new people		150	2.071	2	.355	
		To learn about the history or nature		150	3.885	2	.143	
		To work (tourism related)		150	.954 ^a	2	.621	
		To work (not tourism related)		150	.996 ^a	2	.608	
Number of companion			145	10.911 ^a	6	.091		
Time of visitation		Week days		143	1.668	2	.434	
		Weekends		143	2.520 ^a	2	.284	
		Public holidays		143	.551	2	.759	
		Easter holidays		143	1.978	2	.372	
		Summer holidays		143	7.400 ^a	2	.025*	
		School holidays		143	2.881	2	.237	
		Special family occasions		143	.999	2	.607	
Length of each visitation			149	3.815 ^a	4	.432		
Stakeholder cohort type			173	3.363 ^a	6	.762		
Senses of place	Emotional attachment			132	4.796 ^a	2	.091	
	Functional attachment			143	1.311	2	.519	
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change			108	8.239 ^a	4	.083	
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere			103	2.464 ^a	4	.651	
	Degree of influence on place attraction			115	13.015 ^a	4	.011*	
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development			149	11.388a	4	.023*	

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤.05, **p≤.01, ***p≤.001

7.5.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Just over half of all respondents perceived a “nature-based lodge” to be a suitable development for the Park. The next most popular developments were “campground with designated sites” and “bed and breakfast accommodation” (Table 7-36). “Campground with designated camp sites” was a preferred option for all groups except non-local environmental group members and Tasmanian Government staff. “Bed and breakfast accommodation” was also chosen by all groups except for local-environmental group members and non-local visitors. For both local and non-local environmental group members as well as non-local visitors, the next highest choice was “no development”. Higher proportions of ‘local business’ and ‘Tasmanian Government staff’ believed a “small hotel or motel” to be appropriate (though sample numbers were small). Correlating variables that might influence respondents’ attitudes are identified and summarised in Table 7-37.

Table 7-36 – Attitudes of stakeholder groups to any appropriate potential new tourism operation on private land near to the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>All respondents (n=388)</i>			
Nature-based lodge	51.3	No development	14.4
Campground with designated sites	36.1	Small hotel or motel	8.8
Bed and breakfast accommodation	24.5	Serviced apartment	4.6
Dispersed camping	23.2	Others	4.4
Caravan park	15.5	Major hotel	3.4
<i>Local-businesses (n=25)</i>			
Nature-based lodge	52.0	<i>Non-local visitors (n=83)</i>	
Campground with designated sites	24.0	Nature-based lodge	30.1
Bed and breakfast accommodation	20.0	No development	25.3
Dispersed camping	16.0	Campground with designated sites	18.1
Major hotel	12.0	Dispersed camping	8.4
Small hotel or motel	12.0	Bed and breakfast accommodation	7.2
Caravan park	12.0	Small hotel or motel	4.8
Serviced apartment	8.0	Other operation	2.4
No development	8.0	Major hotel	2.4
Other operation	0.0	Caravan park	1.2
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=70)</i>			
Nature-based lodge	45.7	Serviced apartment	0.0
Campground with designated sites	27.1	<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=38)</i>	
No development	24.3	Nature-based lodge	28.9
Bed and breakfast accommodation	15.7	Bed and breakfast accommodation	15.8
Dispersed camping	15.7	No development	15.8
Caravan park	10	Campground with designated sites	13.2
Other operation	4.3	Dispersed camping	10.5
Small hotel or motel	2.9	Other operation	7.9
Serviced apartment	1.4	Caravan park	2.6
Major hotel	0	Small hotel or motel	2.6
<i>Local-others (n=79)</i>			
Nature-based lodge	53.2	Serviced apartment	2.6
Campground with designated sites	45.6	Major hotel	0.0
Bed and breakfast accommodation	34.2	<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=7)</i>	
Dispersed camping	30.4	Nature-based lodge	57.1
Caravan park	26.6	Bed and breakfast accommodation	14.3
No development	11.4	Small hotel or motel	14.3
Small hotel or motel	8.9	Major hotel	14.3
Serviced apartment	5.1	Campground with designated sites	0.0
Other operation	3.8	Dispersed camping	0.0
Major hotel	2.5	Caravan park	0.0
		No development	0.0
		Serviced apartment	0.0
		Other operation	0.0

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-37 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of attitudes to any appropriate potential new tourism operation on private land near to the Park

<i>Dependent variable-Attitudes to appropriate potential new tourism operation near to the Park</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	239	3.43	3	0.330
		Age	236	7.87	12	0.795
		Level of education completed	235	1.50	6	0.959
		Employment category	240	2.38a	1	0.123
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property	232	1.28	3	0.734
		House	93	1.77a	3	0.622
		Shack	93	2.01a	3	0.571
		Land	93	4.34a	3	0.227
	Length of property ownership		88	3.68	6	0.720
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	238	3.96	3	0.265
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	184	4.09	3	0.252
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	96	4.00a	3	0.261
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	239	7.48a	3	0.058
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	231	5.96	3	0.113
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	201	0.14	3	0.987
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	238	7.24	3	0.065
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	214	4.88	3	0.181
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	151	0.19	3	0.980
	Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park	240	2.76a	3	0.430
		Visitation to the Park	240	3.33a	3	0.344
		Total frequency of visitation	229	13.70a	9	0.133
		Total length of visitation	219	5.35	6	0.499
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year	229	3.76a	9	0.927
Interaction with the Park	Activities during the visitation	Sightseeing	230	10.48	3	0.015*
		Fishing	230	2.49	3	0.477
		Boating	230	4.76	3	0.190
		Sailing	230	4.87a	3	0.181
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	230	7.25	3	0.064
		Surfing	230	4.22	3	0.239
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	230	1.48	3	0.687
		Swimming	230	0.91	3	0.823
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	230	0.90a	3	0.826
		Hang gliding	230	N/A		N/A
		Day bushwalking	230	1.74	3	0.628
		Overnight bushwalking	230	1.62	3	0.654
		Camping	230	6.08	3	0.108
		Picnicking	230	2.58	3	0.461
		Relaxing	230	2.26	3	0.521
	Purpose of visitation	Spending time with family or friends	230	1.01	3	0.799
		Cycling	230	5.26	3	0.154
		To be with family	225	2.70	3	0.446
		To be with friends	225	3.79	3	0.285
		To be close to nature or away from city	225	1.84	3	0.607
		To enjoy the scenery	225	0.63	3	0.890
		To do the activities	225	5.37	3	0.147
		To enjoy the freedom	225	2.06	3	0.559
		To experience different lifestyle	225	5.61	3	0.132
		To meet new people	225	0.67a	3	0.881
		To learn about the history or nature	225	1.95	3	0.583
		To work (tourism related)	225	8.27a	3	0.041*
		To work (not tourism related)	225	1.12a	3	0.773
	Number of companion		218	10.88a	9	0.284
	Time of visitation	Week days	344	3.78	3	0.287
		Weekends	344	0.99	3	0.804
		Public holidays	344	3.81	3	0.283
		Easter holidays	344	1.70	3	0.638
		Summer holidays	344	1.31	3	0.728
		School holidays	344	1.80	3	0.616
		Special family occasions	344	3.67	3	0.299
	Length of each visitation		228	9.15a	6	0.165
	Stakeholder cohort type		240	10.74a	9	0.154
Sense of place	Emotional attachment		205	3.89	1	0.049*
	Functional attachment		213	0.02	1	0.890
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		201	9.44	6	0.151
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		198	11.75	6	0.068
	Degree of influence on place attraction		202	24.43a	6	0.000***
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development		220	45.68	6	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

Sense of place as correlating variables

Emotional attachment (see Chapter 4)

Most of the respondents thought “other development” was appropriate, with a higher proportion of those with no emotional attachment thinking this way (83.2%) compared with those expressing an emotional attachment (70.7%) (Table 7-38). A higher proportion of those who had an emotional attachment considered a “nature-based lodge” to be an appropriate development for private land near to the Park, compared with those without such an attachment.

Table 7-38 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to any appropriate potential new tourism operation on private land near to the Park by emotional attachment

	% within <i>emotional attachment</i>		Total
	No attachment	Had attachment	
Nature-based lodge	16.8	29.3	22.4
Camping	0	0	0
No development	0	0	0
Others	83.2	70.7	77.6
Total	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

The majority of the interviewees were against the eco-lodge proposal in Crescent Bay with two exceptions: a 12-year resident and a tourism business manager TNP3, who believed that the economic benefits of the proposal to the local community would be significant; and a 12-year resident and eight-year accommodation business owner TNP6, who was in favour of this development as long as it was done sensitively to fit in with the surroundings. On the other hand, among the people who were against the Crescent Bay proposal, some believed this development would destroy the ambiance of the place:

It is an undeveloped area. ...A development with a lodge and easy access to that will change that, just changes the feel of the place... There are only 2 beaches which are remote, Crescent Bay is an hour walk to get there, and the other one is Lime Beach on the west side of lagoon beach. There are only two out of a dozen beaches on the Peninsula which don't have easy access, so you get different type of uses there and different types of recreational opportunities there (TNP7 seven-year resident and Tasmanian Government staff).

A 50-year resident and accommodation business owner TNP5 addressed the value of this unspoilt quality:

Crescent Bay is the most amazing memory of my childhood; hot days and the sand dunes, reaching the top and looking above at the water, and there was nobody else there. That is a really special thing. I hope that my children's children would get to see it, too. But they may not if the building is there, and that is a sad thing.

A four-year resident and accommodation business staff TNP2 also expressed the wish for maintaining this undisturbed scenery, and suggested another site which had some existing infrastructures as a better alternative:

I think it is a great pity that the view of that landscape from the water would be changed... People who want to see unspoilt wilderness, I think, had he (the developer) maintained what it was, taken people there, they would be far better off and everybody would be happy and we would have employment here. And he would have Crescent Bay unspoilt basically.

Some expressed their concerns for the nests of sea eagles near the proposed site (TNP2 four-year resident and accommodation business staff), or environmental impacts associated with the new development (TNP9 ten-year resident) because: “Eco-lodge development creates no less impact than other types of accommodation” (TNP5 50-year resident and accommodation business owner). Others described the proposal as “economic vandalism” (TNP4 18-year resident and accommodation business owner) and remained doubtful about its economic benefit to the local community (TNP5 50-year resident and accommodation business owner and TNP9 ten-year resident).

7.6 Attitudes to proposed new tourism developments

7.6.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

An overwhelming percentage of all respondents were “against” the eco-lodge proposal (84.8%) whereas 15.2% supported it (Table 7-39). Amongst the stakeholder groups, Tasmanian Government staff were evenly split, whereas other groups followed the overall trend. The CIs of the attitudes of stakeholder groups to the *proposed new tourism development* in the Bay show that there were no significant differences between groups (Figure 7.13). Variables that are correlated with *attitudes to the eco-lodge proposal* are summarised in Table 7-40. The variable *stakeholder cohort type* was not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-39 –Attitudes of stakeholder groups to the eco-lodge proposal in the Bay			
Variables	Percentage	Variables	Percentage
<i>All respondents (n=297)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=182)</i>	
Against	84.8	Against	86.3
For	15.2	For	13.7
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=76)</i>	
Against	77.8	Against	86.8
For	22.2	For	13.2
<i>Local non-businesses (n=22)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Against	81.8	Against	50.0
For	18.2	For	50.0

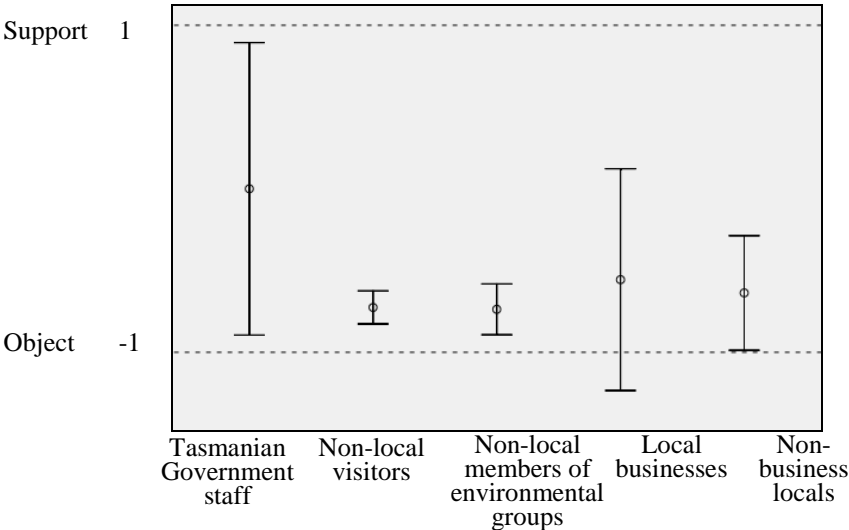


Figure 7.13 – CIs of attitudes to proposed new tourism development in the Bay

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-40 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *attitudes to the eco-lodge proposal in the Bay*

<i>Dependent variable-Attitudes to the new eco-lodge proposal in the Bay</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	292	0.00	1	1.000
		Age	287	0.47	2	0.792
		Level of education completed	283	0.66	2	0.721
		Employment category	297	0.98a	1	0.323
	Connection with the Bay	Ownership	255	0.99a	1	0.321
		Property	21	1.32a	1	0.250
		House	21	0.46 ^a	1	0.496
		Back	21	1.32a	1	0.250
		and	12	0.78 ^a	2	0.677
		Length of property ownership	292	0.63	1	0.428
		Birthplace	237	0.50	1	0.481
		Australia / Overseas	237	2.56a	1	0.110
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	290	0.00a	1	1.000
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	292	0.76	1	0.383
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	292	0.04	1	0.852
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	289	0.23a	1	0.630
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	277	1.59	1	0.207
		Place of longest residency	277	0.00a	1	1.000
	Familiarity with the Bay	Australia / Overseas	297	0.00a	1	0.989
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	297	2.01	1	0.156
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	248	7.49	3	0.058
		Total frequency of visitation	243	2.60	2	0.274
		Total length of visitation	253	1.93 ^a	3	0.587
	Interaction with the Bay	Activities	253	0.02	1	0.896
		Relaxing	253	0.00	1	1.000
		Camping	253	0.01	1	0.906
		Spending time with family or friends	253	2.14	1	0.143
		Fishing	253	0.01	1	0.937
		Boating	253	1.50	1	0.221
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	253	0.00a	1	0.985
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	253	1.63	1	0.202
		Swimming	253	0.40	1	0.529
		Day bushwalking	253	0.58	1	0.448
		Overnight bushwalking	253	0.39	1	0.532
		Walking for exercise	253	0.00a	1	1.000
		Cycling	253	0.03	1	0.869
		Sightseeing	253	0.56a	1	0.453
		Motor sports	250	0.40	1	0.527
		Purpose of visitation	250	0.00	1	1.000
		To be with family	250	9.60	1	0.002**
		To be close to nature or away from city	250	1.07a	1	0.301
		To enjoy the scenery	250	4.57	1	0.032*
		To do the activities	250	8.46	1	0.004**
		To enjoy the freedom	250	2.97	1	0.085
		To experience different lifestyle	250	2.01a	1	0.156
		To meet new people	250	5.32	1	0.021*
		To learn about the history or nature	250	0.90a	1	0.343
		To work (tourism related)	250	0.00a	1	1.000
		To work (not tourism related)	244	6.99	3	0.072
		Number of companions	241	1.25	1	0.263
		Time of visitation	241	0.33	1	0.567
		Week days	241	1.15	1	0.284
		Weekends	241	0.10	1	0.747
		Public holidays	241	1.42	1	0.233
		Easter holiday	241	0.33	1	0.564
		Summer holidays	241	0.00a	1	1.000
		School holidays	241	1.13	2	0.567
		Special family occasions	249	8.50a	3	0.037*
		Length of each visitation	219	1.65	1	0.199
	Stakeholder cohort type	Emotional attachment	237	13.95	1	0.000***
		Functional attachment	183	13.93	2	0.001***
	Senses of place	Degree of change	177	3.68	2	0.159
		Degree of influence on place atmosphere	192	1.92	2	0.383
		Degree of influence on place attraction	281	1.20E2	2	0.000***
		Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere	250	73.94	2	0.000***
	Perceptions of tourism impacts	Current level of tourism development	219	1.65	1	0.199
		Functional attachment	237	13.95	1	0.000***
	Attitudes to tourism developments	Degree of change	183	13.93	2	0.001***
		Degree of influence on place atmosphere	177	3.68	2	0.159
		Degree of influence on place attraction	192	1.92	2	0.383
		Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere	281	1.20E2	2	0.000***

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere

Higher proportions of people who anticipated the place atmosphere would be ‘influenced a little’ or ‘a lot’ by the new proposal objected to the eco-lodge proposal than those who anticipated the atmosphere would “stay the same” (52.1% and 96.4% compared with 0%) (Table 7-41).

Table 7-41 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to eco-lodge proposal by anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere

	% within anticipated degree of influence			Total
	Same atmosphere	Atmosphere would be influenced a little	Atmosphere would be influenced a lot	
Object	.0	52.1	96.4	85.8
Support	100.0	47.9	3.6	14.2
Total	100	100	100	100

Current level of tourism development

The outcome in Table 7-42 shows people considering the current tourism development in the Bay ‘too much’ or ‘about right’ mostly objected to the eco-lodge proposal; about two thirds of those who thought the current tourism development ‘not enough’ supported the eco-lodge proposal.

Table 7-42 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to eco-lodge proposal by attitudes to the current level of tourism development

	% within current level of tourism development			Total
	Too much	About right	Not enough	
Object	98.1	89.3	29.6	84.8
Support	1.9	10.7	70.4	15.2
Total	100	100	100	100

Sense of place as correlating variables***Functional attachment (see Chapter 4)***

While the majority of the respondents “objected” to the eco-lodge proposal, the proportion was higher for those expressing a functional attachment (92.7% compared with 74.0%) (Table 7-43). This indicates that that people with a functional attachment for Recherche Bay are more likely to object to the eco-lodge proposal. Conversely, a higher proportion of those who had little or no functional attachment “supported” the eco-lodge proposal (26.0% compared with 7.3%).

Table 7-43 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to eco-lodge proposal by attachment

	% within functional attachment		Total
	No attachment	Had attachment	
Object	74.0	92.7	86.9
Support	26.0	7.3	13.1
Total	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

The majority of the interviewees were against the eco-lodge proposal in the Bay, while some supported it or specified conditional support. The grounds for opposition were concerns for impacts on the natural environment, the atmosphere of the place, and the camping activities. RB2 (34-year shack owner) and RB6 (volunteer for the Tasmanian Land Conservancy/past five-year government staff) argued no tourism developments should be allowed within the boundary of the National Park. RB6 elaborated:

Developments always compromise the natural environment, such as clearing the vegetation even though it is minimum impact. There are always other things come with it. The developer will ask more and more gradually and the government always gives in, and other people will ask why they cannot do it. So it causes incremental pressures on national park management. ... It can become quite damaging to the Park and upsets the visitors and it can take up so much of the ranger's time in dealing with the development rather than doing what they should do with their jobs.

A campaigner/seven-year Far South resident RB5 also believed “the further you go with it, there will be more damage”. An alternative suggested was to build the new eco-lodge in places with existing services and infrastructure such as Dover or Southport (RB2, 34-year shack owner; RB8, 26-year resident/three-year tourism business manager; and RB1, five-year Tasmanian government staff).

That the area could be altered significantly due to this relatively large scale eco-lodge was another reason for objection (RB4-1, 36-year shack owner; RB5; and RB11). Potential visual impacts from the buildings were a concern (RB8, RB11), as was disturbance of place atmosphere: “It is a beautiful place. If they develop it, it won't be the beautiful place as it was” (RB18, 50-year visitor). RB8 expressed her concern in the following terms: “I just want to have a place untouched in Tasmania... It's a truly unique area. Just leave one place in Tasmania alone”. More noise as a result of increased tourism volume was also an issue (RB4-1, 36-year shack owner), as was the potential for more crime (RB2, 34-year shack owner). RB11 (five-year Tasmanian government staff) observed that “to make it economically viable, they need to have a lot of people coming to stay, which means there will be increasing visitors coming by water or by land”. Families with young children were especially anxious about additional traffic caused by more tourists (RB4-1 and RB4-2, 20-year visitor/partner of shack owner). Even RB12 (50-year camper) who had young grandchildren and did not object to the proposal, was uneasy about increased traffic. The prospect of more restrictions on camping opportunities was another basis for

opposition: “It [eco-lodge] will bring the new rules to campers ... People will not want them on the beach camping” (RB8, 26-year resident/three-year tourism business manager). A 34-year shack owner RB2 thought the proposal would be an exclusive development that only catered for relatively wealthy people:

All the white beach where people walk and use as their backyards will be more or less closed off. They won't be physically closed off, but it would be awkward to go around there and have the seclusion that people have enjoyed over the years.

However, such potential impacts did not concern people who supported the proposal. A 50-year camper RB12 trusted that the developer would maintain the attraction of the place: “The campers already exist. So they [the developer] must like them any way. So they shouldn't want to change”. Some of thought the Bay was not pristine anyway, due to past human activities (RB16, Moss Glen shack owner) and the presence of the road and shacks (RB13, campaigner/seven-year visitor). RB17 (12-year visitor/Tasmanian Government staff) also believed the visitor experience would not be changed:

There were already campers over there... It (eco-lodge) has a relatively very small footprint... the location of it, not in the depth of the National Park, but on the edge of the National Park.

While RB10 (seven-year Far South resident/two-year accommodation staff) thought progress and new developments were unavoidable, some interviewees supported the proposal in light of prospective benefits to the area, such as access road and improved local economy (RB9, nine-year resident/tourism business owner; RB10), or possible funding from the developer that would enable TPWS to hire a permanent ranger and undertake more regular maintenance (RB16, a Moss Glen shack owner). Another basis for support was a belief the new eco-lodge would provide diverse services and experiences that could attract more visitors (RB10, RB12, and RB16). RB12 (50-year camper), RB17 (a 12-year visitor/Tasmanian Government staff), and RB19 (first-time visitor) all expressed an interest in staying in the eco-lodge.

On the other hand, some interviewees expressed conditional support for the development. For example, RB13 (campaigner/seven-year visitor) would support the eco-lodge as long as the beach areas remained open to public access, and as long as the development generated additional funding that was directed towards better management of the area. The possibility of improved employment was also important to a nine-year resident and tourism business owner, RB9, while well-designed buildings which integrate into the

surroundings was a condition of support from RB15 (a 50-year regular camper), RB9, and RB10 (seven-year Far South resident/two-year accommodation staff).

7.6.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Factors of respondents' attitudes towards proposed tourism development

Table 7-44 shows 68.4% of all respondents were “against” the Three Capes Track proposal, with 31.6% expressing “support”. For all stakeholder groups, the majority of respondents objected to the proposal, whereas the majority of Tasmanian Government staff took the opposite stance. A higher proportion of environmental group members, local or non-local, opposed the proposal than for other stakeholder groups.

Table 7-44 –Attitudes to the Three Capes Track proposal in the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=364)</i>			
Against	68.4		
Support	31.6		
<i>Local business (n=23)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=130)</i>	
Against	60.9	Against	61.5
Support	39.1	Support	38.5
<i>Local environmental group members (n=69)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=58)</i>	
Against	87.0	Against	79.3
Support	13.0	Support	20.7
<i>Local others (n=70)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=14)</i>	
Against	62.9	Support	64.3
Support	37.1	Against	35.7

Figure 7.14 shows the CIs of attitudes of stakeholder groups to proposed tourism developments in the Park. There was a significant difference in attitudes between local environmental group members and three of the other stakeholder groups – Tasmanian Government staff, non-local visitors, and other locals.

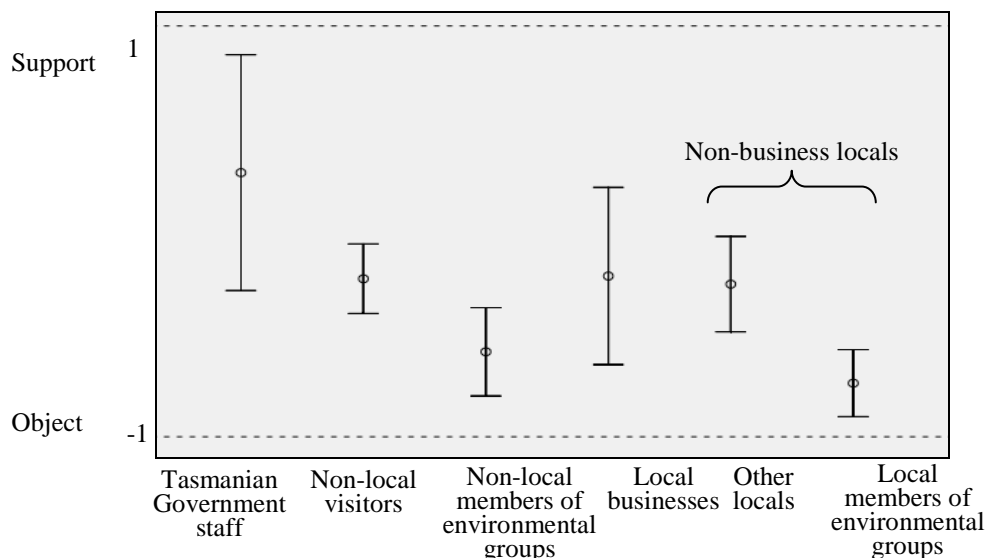


Figure 7.14 – CIs of attitudes to Three Capes Track proposal in the Park

Figure 7.15 shows the differences in attitudes of three environmental groups. The result indicates a significant difference between TCT members and the other two environmental groups – PEN and TNPA.

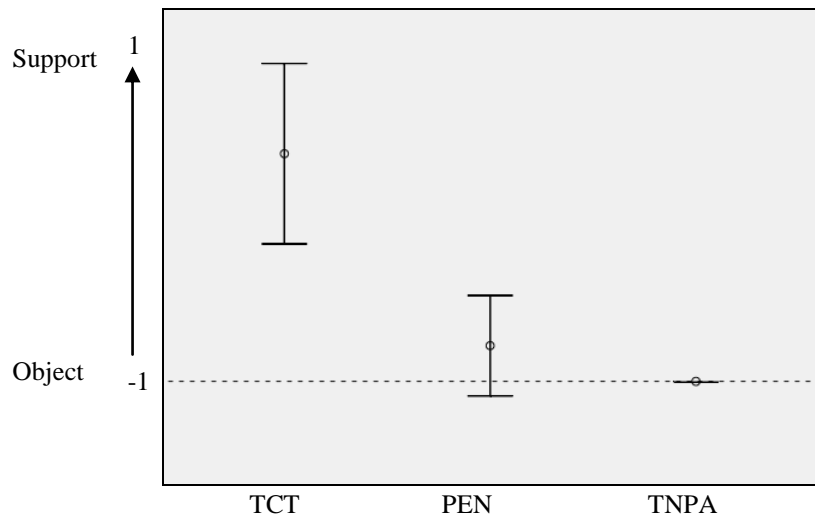


Figure 7.15 – CIs of attitudes of three environmental groups to the Three Capes Track proposal in the Park

Factors of respondents' attitudes towards proposed tourism development

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' attitudes to the Three Capes Track proposal are given in Table 7-45. The variable *visitation of the Park* was not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-45 – The results of chi-square test for identifying correlating variables of respondents' attitudes to the Three Capes Track proposal in the Park

Dependent variable-Attitudes to the Three Capes Track proposal			n	χ ²	df	p	
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	361	1.86	1	0.173	
		Age	356	1.93	4	0.749	
Level of education completed		357	1.38	2	0.501		
Employment category		364	0.85	1	0.358		
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property	352	0.067	1	0.811	
		House	131	18.91	1	0.000***	
		Back	131	10.55	1	0.001***	
		and	131	0.77	1	0.381	
	Length of property ownership		126	2.70	2	0.260	
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	361	4.78	1	0.029*	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	277	8.39	1	0.004**	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	146	0.01a	1	0.940	
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	363	0.00a	1	1.000	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	353	0.63	1	0.429	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	313	5.90	1	0.015*	
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	362	0.25	1	0.614	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	324	2.13	1	0.145	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	228	1.11	1	0.291	
	Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park		364	1.12a	1	0.290
		Visitation to the Park		364	7.05a	1	0.008**
		Total frequency of visitation over the years		351	0.36	3	0.949
		Length of visitation over the years		340	0.09	2	0.956
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year		350	4.90	3	0.179
	Interaction with the Park	Activities during the visitation	Sightseeing	352	0.53	1	0.467
Fishing			352	1.33	1	0.250	
Boating			352	1.87	1	0.172	
Sailing			352	0.00	1	1.000	
Sea kayaking or Canoeing			352	1.04	1	0.309	
Surfing			352	0.00	1	1.000	
Scuba diving or Snorkelling			352	0.00	1	1.000	
Swimming			352	0.00	1	1.000	
Abseiling or Rock climbing			352	1.00a	1	0.318	
Hang gliding			352	0.00a	1	1.000	
Day bushwalking			352	4.34	1	0.037*	
Overnight bushwalking			352	6.82	1	0.009**	
Camping			352	0.90	1	0.343	
Picnicking			352	0.28	1	0.599	
Relaxing			352	0.52	1	0.473	
Spending time with family or friends			352	0.27	1	0.604	
Cycling			352	0.00	1	0.989	
Purpose of visitation		To be with family	347	2.25	1	0.134	
		To be with friends	347	1.64	1	0.201	
		To be close to nature or away from city	347	0.01	1	0.932	
		To enjoy the scenery	347	0.78	1	0.377	
		To do the activities	347	0.03	1	0.875	
		To enjoy the freedom	347	1.23	1	0.268	
		To experience different lifestyle	347	0.47	1	0.493	
		To meet new people	347	0.00	1	0.977	
		To learn about the history or nature	347	0.53	1	0.466	
		To work (tourism related)	347	3.71	1	0.054	
		To work (not tourism related)	347	2.49a	1	0.114	
Number of companion		336	5.29	3	0.152		
Time of visitation		Week days	345	3.40	1	0.065	
		Weekends	345	0.00	1	0.964	
		Public holidays	345	2.76	1	0.097	
		Easter holiday	345	4.68	1	0.031*	
		Summer holidays	345	5.90	1	0.015*	
		School holidays	345	0.47	1	0.491	
		Special family occasions	345	0.00	1	1.000	
Length of each visitation		347	0.97	2	0.616		
Stakeholder cohort type			364	14.43	3	0.002**	
Senses of place		Emotional attachment	319	3.39	1	0.066	
		Functional attachment	326	2.06	1	0.152	
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		306	4.41	2	0.110	
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		300	18.19	2	0.000***	
	Degree of influence on place attraction		305	23.50	2	0.000***	
	Anticipated degree of influence on place atmosphere		345	1.52E2	2	0.000***	
Attitudes to tourism developments		Current level of tourism development	333	81.54	2	0.000***	

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere

An aversion to the Three Capes Track idea was conveyed by those who foresaw the atmosphere of the Park would be ‘influenced a lot’ by the proposal (95.1% compared with 50.0% and 13.5%) (Table 7-46). A relative preference for the Three Capes Track proposal was held by people who anticipated the ambience of the Park would ‘stay the same’ or be ‘influenced a little’ by the proposal.

Table 7-46 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to Three Capes Track proposal by anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere

	% within anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere			Total
	Same atmosphere	Atmosphere would be changed a little	Atmosphere would be changed a lot	
Object	13.5	50.0	95.1	15.1
Support	86.5	50.0	4.9	31.3
Total	100	100	100	100

Current level of tourism development

The respondents who thought the current tourism development in the Park ‘about right’ or ‘too much’ opposed the Three Capes Track proposal (Table 7-47), contrary to those who believed current development ‘not enough’.

Table 7-47 – Cross-tabulation of attitudes to Three Capes Track proposal by attitudes to the current level of tourism development

	% within current tourism development			Total
	Too much tourism	About right	Not enough tourism	
Object	96.4	74.3	21.4	69.1
Support	3.6	25.7	78.6	30.9
Total	100	100	100	100

Results of interview analysis

Most interviewees had positive attitudes towards the Three Capes Track in light of the tracks being upgraded as well as promotion of the Park. However, most objected to or showed concern about the location of the huts within the Park. Some also felt uneasy about half of the huts being managed privately, as well as the commercial service – the guided tour package – provided by the TPWS.

Four out of ten interviewees opposed the development because of issues associated with the planned five huts – in particular the scale of the huts which will cater for up to sixty people (TNP5 50-year resident and accommodation business owner). TNP5 elaborated:

The national parks are wonderful ideas with fabulous resources as long as they are locked up, they are places to use, but the nodes are against the principles of having a wilderness walk, stick nodes in the middle of it, I probably wouldn’t be interested in walking there myself if that is the case.

TNP6 (12-year resident and eight-year accommodation business owner) was concerned that the presence of tourism infrastructure in the Park was against the national park management plan (which was changed to allow for the development). A seven-year resident/Tasmanian Government staff TNP7 had doubts about the TPWS role:

It is a big change from the traditional way we manage national parks. We don't get out of the way to develop new facilities, tracks and huts in what it is, a pristine area... It is like providing a private walking opportunity, a private hut opportunity without private huts, so the government becomes the tourism business. People will be charged to walk the track. It is a change in our role as an organisation.

Other concerns included impacts on the walking experience. The experience of going to wilderness sectors could be spoilt (TNP7), and the traditional national park walk where people carry all their gear would be altered (TNP5). A 44-year non-local regular bushwalker TNP16 believed that the commercial nature of the development and the large numbers of people with would turn walking into a social occasion and defeat the purpose of walking, which he believed was to get away and have an opportunity for self-reflection:

The reason for that is you cannot have a quantitative change without a qualitative change. The more people there are, the greater the impact they have on the environment and a way of life... The exchange that can exist between guests and hosts is changed once you put dollar values on it. You just turn it into commercial venture. I think things are devalued or lose human perspectives as soon as they become money making concerns and the reason for their existence is dollar based.

TNP16 further elucidated his passion - an affinity with the land and a sensuous experience of the endless and rich permutations of seasons, which defined his self-identity:

Australians have a real affinity for the land. Ask an Australian to describe where they come from and they will most likely do it in terms of the landscape and what it is composed of. It is certainly the case with Tasmanians. It is an affinity with the place, with the seasons, of which we have many in Tasmania – not just the traditional European four! The way the bush smells differently at different times of the year; the way rain will make something smell different; the way heat in summer days changes things as well; the different sounds associated with seasons; the air you breathe can change from smoky in summer, to biting crystal in winter, to heavy and moist in autumn. The light is different at various times of the year and the place feels and looks different under certain light. Autumn light is especially beautiful.

A lack of benefit to the local community was another major cause for opposition, especially amongst local businesses. A 50-year resident/accommodation business owner TNP5 and seven-year resident/Tasmanian Government staff TNP7 believed the

accommodation should be located outside the Park; a view echoed by a 12-year resident/eight-year accommodation business owner TNP6:

The walk bringing people from Hobart to here and bringing them back after they finish the walk will not bring money to this area; I think that is bad... The SINICA report published by the council and national park evaluates the impacts on the local economy. You can see that Hobart will get more benefit than us. ... Who will get the contract to run the huts? No locals have helicopters to bring the water to the huts and no locals can get the contracts.

Two out of ten interviewees were in favor of the proposal while three other interviewees granted their support with conditions and concerns. The prospective economic benefits and diverse walking experience were the major reasons for their support. TNP3 (12-year resident/tourism business manager) and TNP4 (18-year resident/accommodation business owner) expected more employment and an improved local economy as a result of increased tourist volume. A 25-year visitor TNP8 thought the proposal could generate more funding for the TPWS to upkeep the Park as well as provide a different and slower-pace walk for people as a result of accommodation inside the Park. He further explained: "I don't have any issue with people who want to go to the Park and just sit there, drink wine and eat cheese".

A ten-year resident TNP9 appreciated more opportunity from upgraded walking tracks to attract more or disabled people. A 17-year irregular visitor/Tasmanian Government staff TNP15 believed in opportunities in this Park, and considered the forested environment to be less sensitive than areas such as the alpine vegetation in Walls of Jerusalem National Park or the Western Arthur Range:

The type of experience, having 5 or 6 days in the amazing, incredible wild coastline... I think it is going to be a really profound experience for people, especially transformative opportunity for people to connect with nature. That is really really important... slow down and connect with nature. My hope is that that will give people experience and that will then affect on how they live their lives, and how they conduct their works.

Those who were in favour of the proposal also expressed some concerns: waste management, for example (12-year resident/tourism business manager TNP3). Whether the money from the proposal would circulate in the community was doubted by TNP4 (18-year resident/accommodation business owner) and TNP9 (ten-year resident). A ten-year resident TNP9 mentioned that property owners in White Beach where the walk finishes were worried about privacy and security. In some cases, the support was subject

to certain conditions. The approval from 25-year visitor TNP8 was conditional:

Parks are to maintain and manage and care for environment, from human perspective. The rights for some things to exist, for their own rights ... If a plant is endangered, it should be maintained and keep it even if it costs us dollars, because it is a part of what we have inherited in our world. No one should have the right to say: it doesn't matter because we want to put a development here. There is only one planet and it is very important. I think the Parks and Wildlife Service needs to have more money to make the decisions that are best for nature, rather than most necessarily what is the best for man.

TNP3 supported the proposal only if the huts were designed to fit their surroundings.

TNP15 believed the huts were not something out of context because already cleared lands and buildings can be seen from many paths in the Park:

The huts if they are beautifully designed, if they designed to enhance peoples experiences and if they are done sustainably and ecologically, I think they can actually add substantially the beauty of the natural area, I think the huts can really integrate into the nature... There is a place for nature in culture and there is a place for culture in nature, they are actually more integrated.

7.7 Potential tourism impacts: influence on atmosphere

7.7.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Three quarters of all respondents foresaw the atmosphere would be "changed a lot" by the proposed eco-lodge operation (Table 7-48), but the proportion of Tasmanian Government staff anticipating this effect was lower than other stakeholder groups.

Table 7-48 –Perceptions of anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Bay

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=307)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=189)</i>	
Would change a lot	74.9	Would be changed a lot	76.7
Would change a little	16.6	Would be changed a little	18.0
Not sure	5.5	Not sure	4.2
Stayed the same	2.9	Stay same	1.1
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=77)</i>	
Would be changed a lot	77.8	Would be changed a lot	71.4
Would be changed a little	22.2	Would be changed a little	13.0
Stay same	0.0	Not sure	10.4
Not sure	0.0	Stay same	5.2
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Would be changed a lot	75.0	Would be changed a lot	62.5
Would be changed a little	12.5	Would be changed a little	25.0
Stay same	8.3	Stay same	12.5
Not sure	4.2	Not sure	0.0

The CIs of perceptions of *anticipated degree of influence on the atmosphere* are given in Figure 7.16. The result indicates no significant difference between the stakeholder groups.

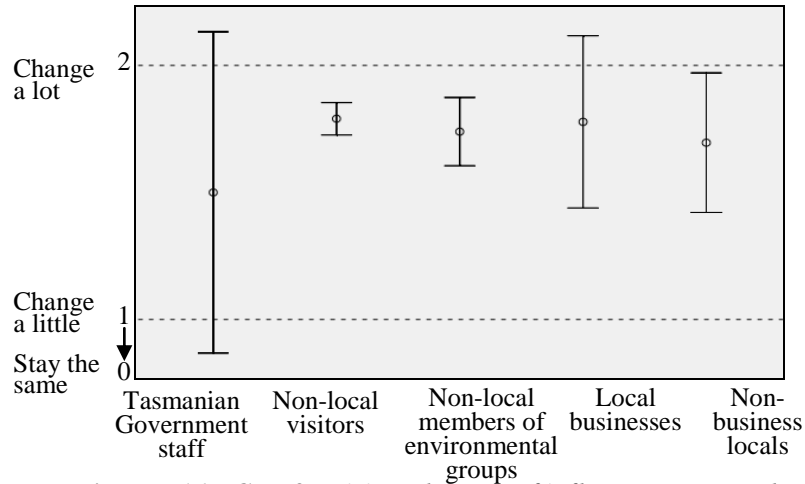


Figure 7.16 – CIs of anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Bay

Factors of respondents' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Table 7-49 shows the correlating variables that might influence anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere. The variables *property ownership*, *land ownership*, *birthplace* (*Far South or Tasmania outside Far South*), *frequency of visitation in the past one year*, *activity* (*swimming*), *functional attachment* and *attitudes to the current level of tourism developments* were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-49 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere in the Bay*

<i>Dependent variable- Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	286	2.11 ^a	2	0.349
		Age	283	5.33 ^a	4	0.255
		Level of education completed	279	9.13 ^a	4	0.058
		Employment category	290	1.74 ^a	2	0.479
Independent variables	Connection with the Bay	Ownership	250	9.31 ^a	2	0.010**
		Property	22	2.07 ^a	2	0.355
		Shack	22	1.83 ^a	2	0.400
		Land	22	7.77 ^a	2	0.021*
	Length of property ownership		14	2.87 ^a	4	0.580
			286	5.33	2	0.070
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	228	0.79 ^a	2	0.674
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	228	11.31 ^a	2	0.004**
	Residence	Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	284	0.18 ^a	2	0.915
		Australia / Overseas	285	2.86	2	0.239
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	285	2.60	2	0.272
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	283	2.17 ^a	2	0.338
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	269	1.97	2	0.373
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	269	2.54	2	0.280
	Familiarity with the Bay	Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	290	1.80 ^a	2	0.407
		Awareness of the Bay	290	1.82	2	0.404
		Visitation to the Bay	244	7.96 ^a	6	0.241
		Total frequency of visitation	238	3.12 ^a	4	0.539
Independent variables	Interaction with the Bay	Total length of visitation	248	12.77 ^a	6	0.047*
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year	249	0.19 ^a	2	0.911
		Activities undertaken during the visitation	249	0.91 ^a	2	0.633
		Relaxing	249	1.52 ^a	2	0.468
	Interaction with the Bay	Camping	249	1.67 ^a	2	0.435
		Spending time with family or friends	249	1.51 ^a	2	0.470
		Fishing	249	0.68	2	0.713
		Boating	249	3.53	2	0.171
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	249	8.25 ^a	2	0.016*
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	249	0.76	2	0.686
		Swimming	249	3.78 ^a	2	0.151
		Day bushwalking	249	1.47 ^a	2	0.479
		Overnight bushwalking	249	0.85 ^a	2	0.654
		Walking for exercise	249	0.36 ^a	2	0.834
		Cycling	249	3.75 ^a	2	0.154
		Sightseeing	246	1.40 ^a	2	0.498
		Motor sports	246	0.08 ^a	2	0.963
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	246	3.89	2	0.143
		To be with friends	246	0.31	2	0.855
		To be close to nature or away from city	246	0.28	2	0.869
		To enjoy the scenery	246	4.67 ^a	2	0.097
		To do the activities	246	0.52	2	0.770
		To enjoy the freedom	246	0.04	2	0.981
		To experience different lifestyle	246	2.43 ^a	2	0.297
		To meet new people	246	5.13 ^a	2	0.077
		To learn about the history or nature	246	0.96 ^a	2	0.620
		To work (tourism related)	246	2.68 ^a	6	0.848
	Number of companion	To work (not tourism related)	239	0.09 ^a	2	0.955
		Week days	237	2.89 ^a	2	0.236
		Weekends	237	0.51 ^a	2	0.775
		Public holidays	237	2.50	2	0.287
		Easter holidays	237	4.28 ^a	2	0.118
		Summer holidays	237	0.45	2	0.799
		School holidays	237	1.88	2	0.391
		Special family occasions	245	4.64 ^a	4	0.327
Independent variables	Length of each visitation		290	8.39 ^a	6	0.211
	Stakeholder cohort type	Week days	220	0.71 ^a	2	0.700
		Weekends	236	12.53 ^a	2	0.002**
	Sense of place	Public holidays	182	5.36 ^a	4	0.252
		Easter holidays	175	6.08 ^a	4	0.193
	Perceptions of tourism impacts	Summer holidays	190	2.34 ^a	4	0.674
		School holidays				
	Attitudes to tourism developments	Special family occasions	252	57.76 ^a	4	0.000***
		Current level of tourism development				

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

7.7.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Table 7-50 shows about half the respondents anticipated the atmosphere would be “changed a lot” (49.0%) by the Three Capes Track proposal. By and large, all the groups tended to concur, except Tasmanian Government staff.

Table 7-50 –Perceptions of anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Park

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=388)</i>			
Would change a lot	49.0		
Would change a little	32.5		
Stayed the same	13.9		
Not sure	4.6		
<i>Local-businesses (n=25)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=136)</i>	
Would be changed a lot	48.0	Would be changed a lot	36.0
Would be changed a little	40.0	Would be changed a little	32.4
Stay same	12.0	Stay same	22.8
Not sure	0.0	Not sure	8.8
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=71)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=65)</i>	
Would be changed a lot	73.2	Would be changed a lot	56.9
Would be changed a little	18.3	Would be changed a little	29.2
Stay same	5.6	Stay same	9.2
Not sure	2.8	Not sure	4.6
<i>Local-others (n=75)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
Would be changed a lot	45.3	Would be changed a little	50.0
Would be changed a little	42.7	Would be changed a lot	37.5
Stay same	10.7	Stay same	12.5
Not sure	1.3	Not sure	0.0

The analysis of the CIs of stakeholder groups' *anticipated degree of influence on the atmosphere* is presented in Figure 7.17. A significant difference was found between non-local visitors, non-local members of environmental groups, as well as local environmental group members and two further stakeholder groups: other locals, and non-local visitors.

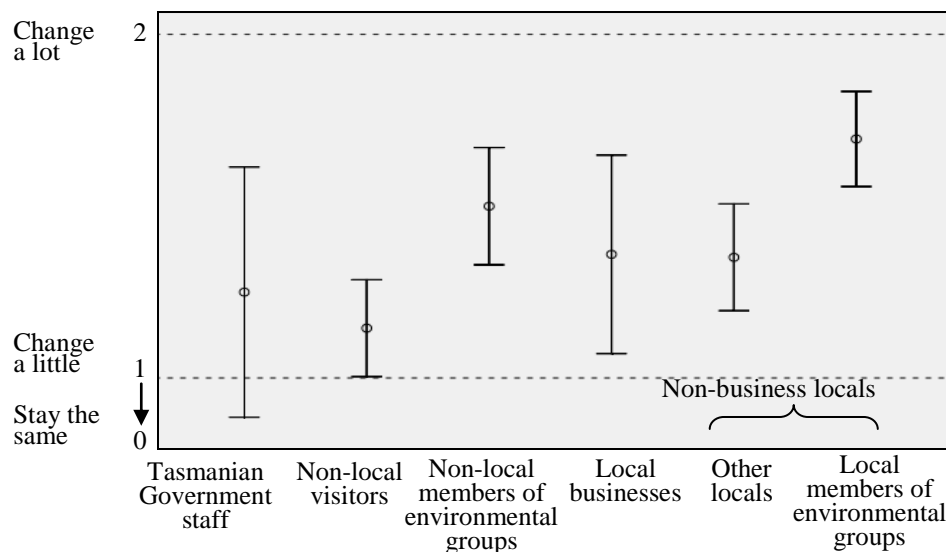


Figure 7.17 – CIs of anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Park

Figure 7.18 shows the CIs in the *anticipated degree of influence on the atmosphere* of the Park based on three environmental groups, indicating a significant difference among the three.

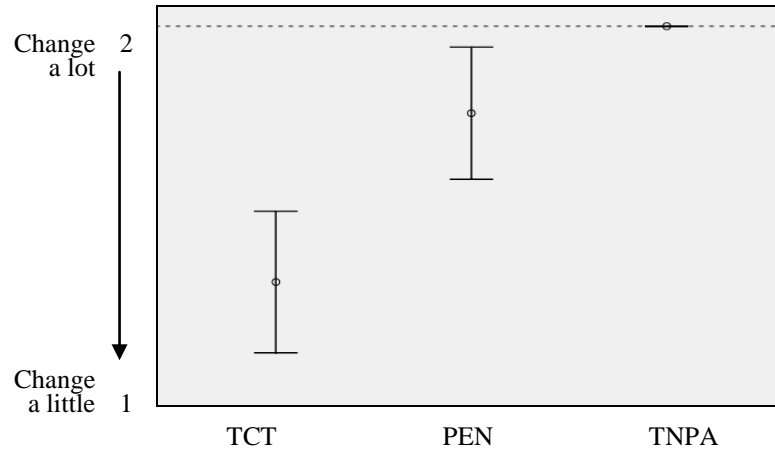


Figure 7.18 – CIs of *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere* of the Park in relation to three environmental groups

Factors of respondents' perceptions of influence on atmosphere

Correlating variables that might influence anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Park are summarised in Table 7-51. *Visitation of the Park* was not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-51 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere of the Park*

Dependent variable- Anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere				n	χ^2	df	p	
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender		367	1.35	2	0.510	
		Age		362	17.21	8	0.028 *	
		Level of education completed		362	6.50	4	0.165	
		Employment category		370	0.27	2	0.874	
Connection with the Park	Ownership	Property		359	2.85	2	0.241	
		House		134	17.19	2	0.000 ***	
		Shack		134	16.68	2	0.000 ***	
		Land		134	4.91a	2	0.086	
		Length of property ownership		129	0.16a	4	0.997	
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas		367	11.22	2	0.004 **	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		278	2.66	2	0.264	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula		148	0.70a	2	0.703	
	Residence	Australia / Overseas		369	4.40a	2	0.111	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		359	0.77	2	0.681	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula		321	12.59	2	0.002 **	
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas		368	7.24	2	0.027 *	
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia		325	0.27	2	0.874	
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula		233	2.99	2	0.225	
Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park			370	1.12a	2	0.572	
	Visitation to the Park			370	9.46a	2	0.009 **	
	Total frequency of visitation			357	8.99	6	0.174	
	Total length of visitation			347	2.18	4	0.702	
	Frequency of visitation in the past one year			356	12.54	6	0.051	
Interaction with the Park	Activities undertaken during the visitation	Sightseeing		358	9.27	2	0.010 **	
		Fishing		358	3.99	2	0.136	
		Boating		358	0.52	2	0.773	
		Sailing		358	1.91	2	0.385	
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing		358	1.73	2	0.420	
		Surfing		358	2.92	2	0.232	
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling		358	4.10	2	0.129	
		Swimming		358	1.04	2	0.593	
		Abseiling or Rock climbing		358	0.49a	2	0.784	
		Hang gliding		358	0.91a	2	0.635	
		Day bushwalking		358	8.99	2	0.011 *	
		Overnight bushwalking		358	13.48	2	0.001 ***	
		Camping		358	0.37	2	0.832	
		Picnicking		358	1.77	2	0.412	
		Relaxing		358	2.08	2	0.354	
	Purpose of visitation	Spending time with family or friends		358	8.45	2	0.015 *	
		Cycling		358	1.22	2	0.544	
		To be with family		353	2.64	2	0.267	
		To be with friends		353	4.36	2	0.113	
		To be close to nature or away from city		353	12.64	2	0.002 **	
		To enjoy the scenery		353	8.58	2	0.014 *	
		To do the activities		353	10.03	2	0.007 **	
		To enjoy the freedom		353	6.10	2	0.047 *	
		To experience different lifestyle		353	1.93	2	0.380	
	Number of companion	To meet new people		353	3.49	2	0.175	
		To learn about the history or nature		353	5.48	2	0.065	
		To work (tourism related)		353	1.62	2	0.446	
		To work (not tourism related)		353	1.07	2	0.586	
					344	8.04a	6	0.235
		Time of visitation	Week days		350	13.22	2	0.001 ***
			Weekends		350	2.17	2	0.337
			Public holidays		350	5.32	2	0.070
			Easter holidays		350	3.44	2	0.179
			Summer holidays		350	2.19	2	0.335
	School holidays			350	3.62	2	0.164	
	Special family occasions			350	4.58	2	0.101	
	Length of each visitation			352	5.56a	4	0.234	
Stakeholder cohort type				370	36.08	10	0.000 ***	
Sense of place	Emotional attachment			323	5.45	2	0.066	
	Functional attachment			331	2.69	2	0.260	
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change			316	14.94	4	0.005 **	
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere			311	16.15	4	0.003 **	
	Degree of influence on place attraction			313	41.92	4	0.000 ***	
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development			340	71.92	4	0.000 ***	

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

7.8 Intentions to visit in the future

7.8.1 Recherche Bay

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' intentions to visit in the future

About two thirds of people said that in the future they would visit the site the “same amount” (69.0%), while 13.7% were “not sure” (Table 7-52). The percentage of those planning to “visit more” was 9.8%. Tasmanian Government staff differed from the other groups in that the second most popular option was to “visit more”. While other groups expected to have some level of visitation in the future, 4.2% of non-local visitors and local non-businesses “did not plan to return”.

Table 7-52 –Intentions to visit the Bay in the future

Variables	Percentage	Variables	Percentage
<i>All respondents (n=255)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=168)</i>	
Same amount	69.0	Visit the same amount	64.3
Not sure	13.7	Not sure	15.5
More frequently	9.8	Visit more	11.9
Less frequently	4.3	Visit less	4.2
I do not plan to return	3.1	Do not plan to return	4.2
<i>Local business (n=9)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=46)</i>	
Visit the same amount	88.9	Visit the same amount	71.7
Not sure	11.1	Not sure	13.0
Visit less	0.0	Visit less	8.7
Visit more	0.0	Visit more	6.5
Do not plan to return	0.0	Do not plan to return	0.0
<i>Local non-businesses (n=24)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=8)</i>	
Visit the same amount	83.3	Visit the same amount	87.5
Not sure	8.3	Visit more	12.5
Visit more	4.2	Visit less	0.0
Do not plan to return	4.2	Not sure	0.0
Visit less	0.0	Do not plan to return	0.0

Figure 7.19 analyses the CIs of stakeholders' future visit plans. The analysis found no significant difference between the stakeholder groups.

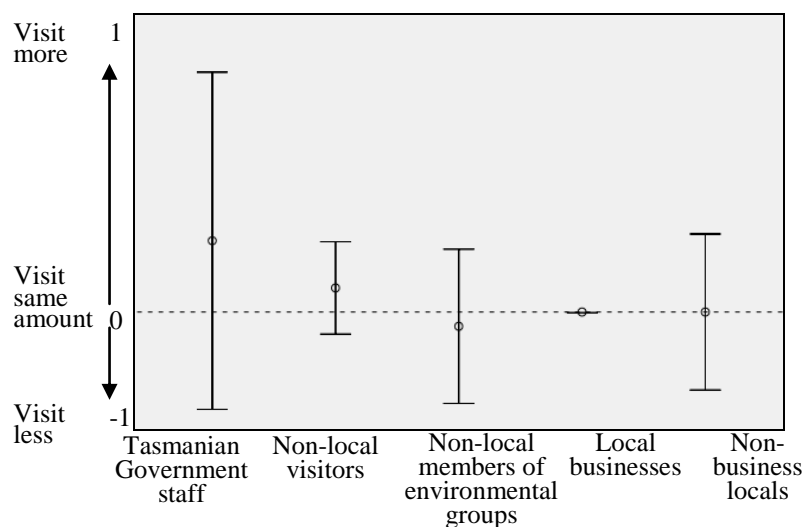


Figure 7.19 – CIs of intentions to visit the Bay in the future

Factors of respondents' intentions to visit in the future

Correlating variables that might affect respondents' *intentions to visit in the future* are summarised in Table 7-53. Fourteen variables – *length of property ownership, residence (Tasmania or mainland Australia), longest residency (Australia or overseas), awareness of the Bay, visitation of the Bay, total frequency of visitation, frequency of visitation in the past one year, purpose of visitation (undertake activities), time of visitation (special family occasions), perceptions of the degree of change, perceptions of influence on atmosphere of the Bay, perceptions of the degree of influence on the attraction of the Bay, attitudes to the current level of tourism development and attitudes to appropriate new tourism operation* – were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Table 7-53 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of intentions to visit the Bay in the future

<i>Dependent variable-Intentions to visit in the future</i>			<i>n</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	217	1.81	2	0.404
		Age	213	3.72 ^a	4	0.445
		Level of education completed	211	6.97 ^a	4	0.138
		Employment category	220	1.75 ^a	2	0.417
Connection with the Bay	Ownership	Property	218	1.64 ^a	2	0.441
		House	21	0.25 ^a	1	0.619
		Shack	21	0.18 ^a	1	0.676
		Land	21	3.36 ^a	1	0.067
	Length of property ownership		13	13.00 ^a	2	0.002 **
	Birthplace	Australia / Overseas	216	4.56 ^a	2	0.102
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	179	4.56	2	0.103
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	179	1.84 ^a	2	0.398
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	215	4.32 ^a	2	0.115
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	218	24.20 ^a	2	0.000 ***
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	218	6.09	2	0.048 *
	Place of longest residency	Australia / Overseas	215	9.81 ^a	2	0.007 **
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	204	9.54	2	0.008 **
		Far South / Tasmania outside Far South	204	4.05 ^a	2	0.132
	Familiarity with the Bay	Awareness of the Bay	220	10.63 ^a	2	0.005 **
		Visitation to the Bay	220	10.63 ^a	2	0.005 **
		Total frequency of visitation	215	25.36 ^a	6	0.000 ***
		Total length of visitation	213	12.67	4	0.013 *
	Frequency of visitation in the past one year		217	13.92 ^a	6	0.031 *
Interaction with the Bay	Activities during the visitation	Relaxing	218	2.37	2	0.306
		Camping	218	1.15	2	0.563
		Spending time with family or friends	218	10.11	2	0.006 **
		Fishing	218	10.23	2	0.006 **
		Boating	218	11.46	2	0.003 **
		Canoeing or Kayaking or Sailing	218	9.38	2	0.009 **
		Scuba diving or snorkelling	218	4.38 ^a	2	0.112
		Swimming	218	6.77	2	0.034 *
		Day bushwalking	218	3.17 ^a	2	0.075
		Overnight bushwalking	218	6.79	2	0.034 *
		Walking for exercise	218	10.48	2	0.005 **
		Cycling	218	2.75 ^a	2	0.253
		Sightseeing	218	0.58	2	0.750
		Motor sports	218	3.72 ^a	2	0.155
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	216	5.77	2	0.056
		To be with friends	216	8.73	2	0.013 *
		To be close to nature or away from city	216	0.68	2	0.712
		To enjoy the scenery	216	3.04 ^a	2	0.219
		To do the activities	216	12.18 ^a	2	0.002 **
		To enjoy the freedom	216	4.66	2	0.097
		To experience different lifestyle	216	4.68	2	0.096
		To meet new people	216	12.25	2	0.002 **
		To learn about the history or nature	216	3.98	2	0.136
		To work (tourism related)	216	0.87 ^a	2	0.647
		To work (not tourism related)	216	0.75 ^a	2	0.687
	Number of companion		211	4.08 ^a	6	0.666
	Time of visitation	Week days	212	0.44	2	0.802
		Weekends	212	11.46	2	0.003 **
		Public holidays	212	7.50	2	0.023 *
		Easter holiday	212	8.20	2	0.017 *
		Summer holidays	212	6.14	2	0.046 *
		School holidays	212	2.09 ^a	2	0.352
		Special family occasions	212	6.09 ^a	2	0.048 *
	Length of each visitation		216	2.35 ^a	4	0.672
	Stakeholder cohort type		220	6.19 ^a	6	0.402
Sense of place	Emotional attachment		195	3.31	2	0.191
	Functional attachment		206	4.92	2	0.086
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Degree of change		174	9.66 ^a	4	0.047 *
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		167	12.45 ^a	4	0.014 *
	Degree of influence on place attraction		179	18.50 ^a	4	0.001 ***
	Anticipated degree of influence on place atmosphere		211	1.92 ^a	4	0.750
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development		202	10.52 ^a	4	0.033 *
	Potential tourism expansion		126	10.52 ^a	4	0.033 *
	Proposed tourism expansion		211	1.26 ^a	2	0.532

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Activity (spending time with family or friends)

A higher proportion of those spending time with family indicated that they are more likely to visit the Bay “the same” amount in future (Table 7-54). More variation was expressed by those who did not spend time with family, with higher proportions expecting to either “visit less” (15.0% compared with 3.4%) or “visit more” (12.0% compared with 9.3%).

Table 7-54 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by activity (spending time with family)

	% within activity		Total
	Not spend time with family	Spend time with family	
Visit less	15.0	3.4	8.7
Same	73.0	87.3	80.7
Visit more	12.0	9.3	10.6
Total	100	100	100

Activity (boating)

People who went boating are more liable to either visit the “same” amount or “visit more” in future (Table 7-55). For those who did not go boating, a higher proportion said they were likely to “visit less” (13.4% compared with 0%).

Table 7-55 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by activity (boating)

	% within activity		Total
	Not boating	Boating	
Visit less	13.4	.0	8.7
Same	77.5	86.8	80.7
Visit more	9.2	13.2	10.6
Total	100	100	100

Purpose of visitation (be with friends)

A higher proportion of respondents whose purpose of visit was to be with friends intended visiting the “same” (88.6% compared with 75.0%) (Table 7-56). Again, there is more variability amongst people who did not go to get together with friends.

Table 7-56 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by purpose of visitation (be with friends)

	% within purpose of visitation		Total
	Not with friends	With friends	
Visit less	13.3	2.3	8.8
Same	75.0	88.6	80.6
Visit more	11.7	9.1	10.6
Total	100	100	100

Time of visitation (weekends)

There are differences in future visitation plans between people who visited on weekends and week days, although this was not marked (Table 7-57). More of the latter said that they intended to “visit less” in the future.

Table 7-57 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by time of visitation (weekends)

	% within time of visitation		Total
	Not weekends	Weekends	
Visit less	15.1	2.5	8.0
Same	76.3	84.9	81.1
Visit more	8.6	12.6	10.8
Total	100	100	100

7.8.2 Tasman National Park

Results of questionnaire analysis

Stakeholder groups' intentions to visit in the future

Table 7-58 demonstrates that 73.1% of all respondents would visit the Park the “same amount”, with 12.5% “more frequently” and 7.0% “less frequently”. Only 0.8% “did not plan to return in the future”. The second most popular choice for four of the stakeholder group was to “visit more”, whereas non-local environmental group members would “visit less” and other locals were “not sure” about their future decisions.

Table 7-58 –Intentions to visit the Park in the future

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>All respondents (n=386)</i>			
Same amount	73.1		
More frequently	12.4		
Less frequently	7.0		
Not sure	6.7		
I do not plan to return	0.8		
<i>Local-businesses (n=26)</i>		<i>Non-local visitors (n=129)</i>	
Visit the same amount	80.8	Visit the same amount	64.3
Visit more	11.5	Visit more	17.8
Not sure	7.7	Visit less	9.3
Visit less	0.0	Not sure	6.2
Do not plan to return	0.0	Do not plan to return	2.3
<i>Local-environmental group members (n=70)</i>		<i>Non-local environmental group members (n=67)</i>	
Visit the same amount	74.3	Visit the same amount	83.6
Visit more	14.3	Visit less	7.5
Visit less	7.1	Not sure	6.0
Not sure	4.3	Visit more	3.0
Do not plan to return	0.0	Do not plan to return	0.0
<i>Local-others (n=78)</i>		<i>Tasmanian Government staff (n=16)</i>	
Visit the same amount	71.8	Visit the same amount	87.5
Not sure	11.5	Visit more	12.5
Visit more	10.3	Visit less	0.0
Visit less	6.4	Not sure	0.0
Do not plan to return	0.0	Do not plan to return	0.0

The CIs of stakeholders' future visitation plans are illustrated in Figure 7.20, indicating no significant differences between groups. The CIs of intentions to visit in the future among the three environmental groups are shown in Figure 7.21, again revealing no significant differences.

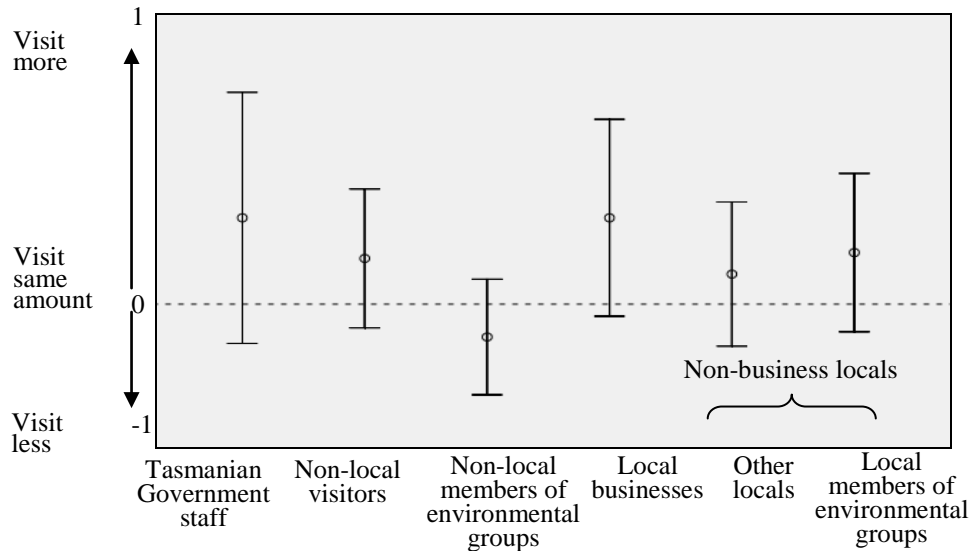


Figure 7.20 – CIs of intentions to visit the Park in the future

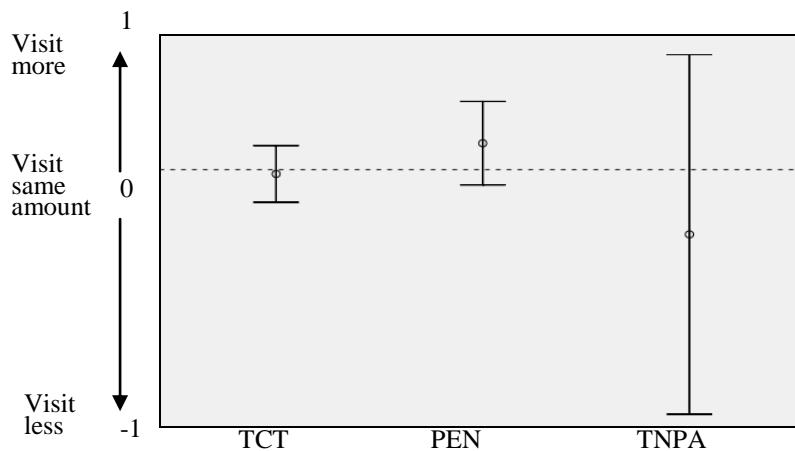


Figure 7.21 – CIs of intentions to visit the Park in the future in relation to three environmental groups

Factors of respondents' intentions to visit in the future

Correlating variables that might influence respondents' intentions to visit in the future are summarised in Table 7-59. *Residence (Australia or overseas and Tasmania or mainland Australia), longest residency (Australia or overseas), length of each visitation, perceptions of influence on the attraction of the Park and attitudes to any potential new tourism operation on private land near to the Park* were not assessed (see earlier explanation on page 155).

Ch7 - Tourism development, impact and future visitation

Table 7-59 – The results of chi-square tests for identifying correlating variables of respondents' intentions to visit the Park in the future

<i>Dependent variable-Intentions to visit in the future</i>			<i>n</i>	<i>χ²</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Independent variables	Socio-economic backgrounds	Gender	355	1.46	2	0.482
		Age	349	9.27	4	0.055
		Level of education completed	350	7.42a	4	0.115
		Employment category	360	2.30	2	0.316
Connection with the Park	Property ownership	Property ownership	357	2.28	2	0.320
		House ownership	141	3.14	2	0.078
		Shack ownership	141	3.39	2	0.183
		Land ownership	141	1.21a	2	0.546
	Length of property ownership	Length of property ownership	135	3.13a	4	0.536
		Birthplace	355	1.00	2	0.607
		Australia / Overseas	276	0.28	2	0.869
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	149	0.76a	2	0.686
	Residence	Australia / Overseas	357	57.62a	2	0.000***
		Tasmania / Mainland Australia	353	10.06a	2	0.007**
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	322	1.68	2	0.432
		Place of longest residency	356	6.53a	2	0.038*
	Place of longest residency	Tasmania / Mainland Australia	322	1.11	2	0.574
		Tasman Peninsula / Tasmania outside Peninsula	231	0.09	2	0.958
Familiarity with the Park	Awareness of the Park	Awareness of the Park	357	2.37a	2	0.307
		Visitation to the Park	357	N/A		N/A
		Total frequency of visitation over the years	351	11.81	6	0.066
		Total length of visitation	346	0.42	4	0.981
		Frequency of visitation in the past one year	351	6.55	6	0.365
Interaction with the Park	Activities during the visitation	Sightseeing	357	2.36	2	0.307
		Fishing	357	2.67	2	0.263
		Boating	357	7.45	2	0.024*
		Sailing	357	0.84a	2	0.656
		Sea kayaking or Canoeing	357	1.10	2	0.576
		Surfing	357	1.37	2	0.505
		Scuba diving or Snorkelling	357	5.07	2	0.079
		Swimming	357	1.78	2	0.410
		Abseiling or Rock climbing	357	1.56a	2	0.457
		Hang gliding	357	0.28a	2	0.871
		Day bushwalking	357	0.60a	2	0.739
		Overnight bushwalking	357	5.69	2	0.058
		Camping	357	5.04	2	0.081
		Picnicking	357	0.35	2	0.842
		Relaxing	357	9.53	2	0.009**
		Spending time with family or friends	357	7.25	2	0.027*
		Cycling	357	11.91	2	0.003**
	Purpose of visitation	To be with family	352	2.83	2	0.243
		To be with friends	352	7.26	2	0.026*
		To be close to nature or away from city	352	5.07	2	0.079
		To enjoy the scenery	352	5.81	2	0.055
		To do the activities	352	1.42	2	0.491
		To enjoy the freedom	352	3.68	2	0.159
		To experience different lifestyle	352	2.01	2	0.365
		To meet new people	352	3.09a	2	0.213
		To learn about the history or nature	352	2.85	2	0.241
		To work (tourism related)	352	0.57a	2	0.753
		To work (not tourism related)	352	1.26a	2	0.532
	Number of companion	Number of companion	339	6.38	6	0.382
		Time of visitation	351	0.96	2	0.620
		Weekends	351	7.15	2	0.028*
		Public holidays	351	2.26	2	0.324
		Easter holiday	351	0.32	2	0.854
		Summer holidays	351	0.31	2	0.856
		School holidays	351	0.28	2	0.872
		Special family occasions	351	3.92	2	0.141
	Length of each visitation		353	23.58a	4	0.000***
Stakeholder cohort type	Stakeholder cohort type		360	15.03	6	0.020*
	Sense of place		322	4.76	2	0.092
Perceptions of tourism impacts	Functional attachment		330	3.54	2	0.171
	Degree of change		319	7.56a	4	0.109
	Degree of influence on place atmosphere		313	8.90	4	0.064
	Degree of influence on place attraction		322	69.56a	4	0.000***
	Anticipated degree of influence on place atmosphere		335	4.53	4	0.339
Attitudes to tourism developments	Current level of tourism development		327	6.01a	4	0.198
	Potential tourism expansion		209	13.29a	6	0.039*
	Proposed tourism expansion		329	3.46	2	0.177

a. More than 20% of the cells have expected count less than 5

* p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001

Activity (spending time with family or friends)

Those who spent time in the park with family were more inclined to say they would visit to the “same” degree or “more” in future (Table 7-60).

Table 7-60 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by activity (spending time with family)

	% within activity		Total
	Not spend time with family	Spend time with family	
Visit less	10.0	6.8	8.1
Same	82.0	75.8	78.4
Visit more	8.0	17.4	13.4
Total	100	100	100

Activity (boating)

Table 7-61 illustrates a higher proportion of those who did not go boating considered they would “visit less” (9.7% compared with 4.0%). However, those who went boating tended to “visit more”.

Table 7-61 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by activity (boating)

	% within activity		Total
	Not boating	Boating	
Visit less	9.7	4.0	8.1
Same	79.4	76.0	78.4
Visit more	10.9	20.0	13.4
Total	100	100	100

Purpose of visitation (be with friends)

A higher proportion of those who went to be with friends considered visiting “more” (Table 7-62). For those who did not go to be with friends, there was little difference in the proportions with respect to their plans to visit in the future.

Table 7-62 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by purpose of visitation (be with friends)

	% within purpose of visitation		Total
	Not be with friends	Be with friends	
Visit less	7.7	8.3	8.0
Same	82.7	72.2	78.4
Visit more	9.6	19.4	13.6
Total	100	100	100

Time of visitation (weekends)

Table 7-63 shows that a higher proportion, but not markedly so, of those who went on weekends as opposed to week days, intended visiting the “same” amount (80.6% compared with 73.7%). On the other hand, a higher proportion of those who did not go on weekends considered “visiting less”.

Table 7-63 – Cross-tabulation of future visit plans by time of visitation (weekends)

	% within time of visitation		Total
	Not weekends	Weekends	
Visit less	14.1	5.6	8.0
Same	73.7	80.6	78.6
Visit more	12.1	13.9	13.4
Total	100	100	100

Chapter 8 Discussion

This chapter encapsulates the central themes and contributions of my thesis. By examining how respondents perceived the Bay and the Park, their senses of place are identified and the meaning of sense of place clarified. Comparisons between my results and the literature also help define the concept. The examination of my approach to assess sense of place provides suggestions on appropriate measurement of the concept. The practical implications of sense of place to governance and management are discussed. I then present a model, generalised from my findings, which illustrates the relationships among sense of place, recreational behaviour, socio-demographic backgrounds, perceptions of tourism impacts and attitudes to tourism developments. Lastly, directions for future sense of place study are outlined.

8.1 Meaning of sense of place

The senses of place for my study sites support an observation drawn from the literature: visitors to protected areas have emotional responses to and endow meanings to these places. Senses of place can be non-exclusive or exclusive. A non-exclusive sense of place is not restricted to my study sites, but can occur for other places where similar place features and qualities trigger a similar people-place relationship. An exclusive sense of place is particularised to a specific place.

Non-exclusive senses of place for the case study sites encompassed three components – atmosphere, functional attachment and intellectual attachment. With respect to atmosphere, in Chapter 3 I demonstrated that the literature emphasises the social dimension of place, and tends to neglect the physical dimensions. I challenged this presumption by including questions related to atmosphere in my survey. The results show that atmosphere of the study sites, and their associated landscape characteristics, were significant contributors towards respondents' sense of place (Section 6.2). This provides support for the contention that physical characteristics (visual, aural, olfactory) are important contributors to sense of place for natural areas (see page 41). In terms of visual characteristics, for example, the Bay was described as natural, peaceful and pristine while the Park was natural, stunning and spectacular. Visual landscape characteristics associated with place atmosphere included features such as mountains and the ocean as well as cultural place components such as low-key facilities or the

absence of infrastructure. Respondents also identified forest smell and ocean sounds as contributing to place atmosphere. This highlights the critical role of people's sensual experience in forming sense of place, and supports the findings of Pred (1983), Sell et al. (1984) and Tuan (1979) who described sense of place as involving a total sensual experience.

Functional attachment is another component of non-exclusive senses of place. Respondents conveyed the study sites as their preferred spots for recreation activities (pages 113, 118, 143 and 147). Such people-place connection is an activity-oriented fondness or preference for the sites where people can participate in their favourite recreation activities. This indicates the significance of the physical resources of a place to satisfy people's needs and goals. Such emphasis on the utility of a place to suit people's activities is in accordance with the functional attachment or the place dependence discussed in Chapter 3. However, for some respondents who use the study sites for traditional family camping, their functional attachment can be transformed into more emotional attachments (pages 144-147 and 148-150). Such attachment can be the result of happy memories and is typically associated with long term visitation. As elaborated below, these characteristics can also form an exclusive sense of place.

Another component of the non-exclusive senses of place is intellectual attachment (pages 143-144), which may be provoked by respondents' knowledge and interest in the historic and biological significance of the sites. My findings were that the focus of those with intellectual attachment was to protect the historic heritage or the biological resources that they felt attached to, even more so than the opportunity to use or visit the area in the future. Such attachment can also motivate respondents to campaign against development. Part of their motivation appears to be a fear that such developments may compromise their place-based values. Efforts and action to reserve those values correspond to the strongest level of sense of place – commitment or sacrifice for a place – as proposed by Shamai (1991). In other words, this form of non-exclusive intellectual attachment seems to generate a particularly strong sense of place. Such attachment is not the result of physical closeness or long term visitation to a place, and does not imply that people necessarily want to remain in close physical proximity to the place. This finding broadens our understanding of the ways in which people form an attachment to a place.

Intellectual attachment can also be transformed into a feeling of belongingness or identification by recognition of similarities between a respondent's personal history and the history of a site. For example, as a former captain of a ship, one interviewee felt sympathy with the difficulty of the early pioneers visiting the Bay in the eighteenth century. Sharing the same background with pioneers made him feel that he belonged to the site. Another interviewee, originally from France, also expressed a feeling of being at home in the Bay after knowing the French expedition had visited the area in the 1800s. However, unlike the exclusive emotional attachments based on people's past contacts with the place, the identification with the Bay was not exclusive to the site given the fact that respondents said they could establish similar connections with other places with the same place-based values. Although intellectual attachment is not exclusive to the Bay, it is a strong form of sense of place. This gives a new interpretation to the concept. This non-exclusive sense of place broadens the understanding of the concept and suggests the need to re-examine the development of the sense of place. This finding also provides a direction for future place-based research in terms of comparing senses of place between different places with same place-based values.

In contrast to the non-exclusive senses of place, feelings of belongingness or identification can be exclusively associated with a particular site (pages 144-147 and 148-150). They are emotion-guided and articulated only by long-term visitors who had close contact and wanted to remain physically close to the sites. For instance, shack owners and residents perceived the sites to be extensions to their homes or territories. The perception of the Bay as home was shown by shack owners and residents who were very fond of the lifestyle or the environment of the region. In some cases, their families had resided in the region since 1800s. This is in line with emotional attachment or place attachment discussed in Section 3.1.2. Respondents who used the area for traditional family camping regarded the area as their own backyard. This is partly because they lived in the vicinity and had easy access to the area, and partly because their families had visited the place for generations: visits had become a significant part of their lives and family tradition. This territorial feeling is similar to the concept of rootedness proposed by Tuan (1980), who described feeling at home in an unself-conscious way as a result of long habitation at one place.

Moreover, those who identified themselves with the sites also wished for no change, and wanted to maintain the sites as the way they were. This is presumably due to the fact that any change might alter the landscape associated with their memories, or might destroy the place atmosphere to which they felt attracted. My findings also reveal visitation to the sites or sharing the places with new family members or friends represent who they are, and this plays a vital role in their self identity. Respondents felt content and recognised by those people when their friends were also fond of the sites and would like to visit in the future. Such identification with a place is similar to some concepts mentioned in Chapter 3, such as place identity referred to by Proshansky et al. (1983) and Watson et al. (1991); place attachment defined by Moore and Graefe (1994); or insidedness proposed by Relph (1976) to characterise a sense of belongingness and deep, complete identity with a place. In addition, respondents also wanted to remain in the vicinity of the sites and to have contact with the sites on a regular basis. This illustrates people's inclination to stay physically close to a place where they feel emotionally connected. For example, a large number of respondents expressed a feeling of sadness at the thought that if they had to move to other places they couldn't visit regularly in the future. The feelings of connection to a place and the tendency for people to remain close respond to the idea of place attachment discussed in Chapter 3.

My results also suggest that sense of place is broader than place attachment. This endorses the argument made in Section 3.1.1 that sense of place is an overarching concept that subsumes other closely related ideas concerning people-place relationships, and supports conclusions by Pretty et al. (2003), Stedman (2003) and Shamai (1991). However, my findings differ from those who did not differentiate sense of place from place attachment (Altman & Low 1992; Warzecha & Lime 2010; Williams & Stewart 1998). This is presumably due to their narrow focus on the social dimension of sense of place. Such focus can result in the neglect of different perspectives of the concept, such as the physical dimension of sense of place and thereby cause misinterpretation.

Another theme in my thesis was to examine the structure of place attachment. The place attachment scale in the survey questionnaire was specially designed for this purpose. Factor analysis indicated a two-dimensional structure for place attachment, which I labelled as emotional attachment and functional attachment (Section 6.4.1). The former corresponds to place identity in the literature, emphasising that the identification of the place and the

importance of the setting are independent of respondents' activities. The latter matches place dependence and is influenced by how well the setting facilitated their activities. Although place dependence was classified by some scholars as physical attachment, I decided to use functional attachment to make a distinction between this attachment and the physical dimension of sense of place. My approach also emphasises the activity-orientation of functional attachment and its focus on goals and needs fulfilment.

Moreover, the two dimensions of place attachment are in line with the finding of Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) and Moore and Graefe (1994). Such consistency is not surprising because the scale employed in my research was similar to theirs. The finding of the two-dimensional place attachment also aligns with other studies that employed different scales, such as Schreyer et al. (1981) and Gunderson and Watson (2007). However, other authors have identified dimensions of place attachment in addition to the two dimensions revealed in my findings. These include lifestyle (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000) and rootedness (or embeddedness), experiential satisfaction (Kaltenborn 1998). These additional dimensions are a consequence of the different definitions of place attachment adopted by these researchers.

An investigation of the factors that can influence the level of place attachment was also part of my research (Section 6.4.3 and 6.4.4). Figure 8.1 illustrates the variables that were significantly correlated with both dimensions of place attachment for both the study sites. The level of people's attachments to a place was found to be correlated with the physical affinity between people and that place. This finding corresponds with earlier literature where place attachment was described in terms of such an affinity (Stokols & Shumaker 1981; Williams et al. 1992), or was defined as a tendency of individuals to maintain closeness to the object of attachment (Ainsworth & Bell 1970; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001). For example, a higher level of place attachment was found among respondents who lived in close proximity to the study sites. Those respondents included property owners and local respondents compared with non-local visitors and non-local members of environmental groups. This is similar to the findings of Brown et al. (2003), who found higher place attachment amongst local home owners. This finding also corresponds with the divergence between insiders and outsiders indicated in Section 3.3.

My findings also show the frequency of visitation in total or within the last year was significantly related to place attachment. This agrees with the findings of Bricker and

Kerstetter (2000), Moore and Graefe (1994), Shamai (1991) and Williams et al. (1992). This is not surprising as people who resided nearby had easy access to the sites and can be expected to visit more frequently than those who lived further away. Active and nearby individuals would seem to have a greater opportunity to get to know a local setting and thus to establish a stronger bond to that setting. However, my findings also show that people who had lived more of their lives in Australia than overseas held greater attachment than those who had not. This is the case even for those Australians who did not live in close proximity to the study areas.

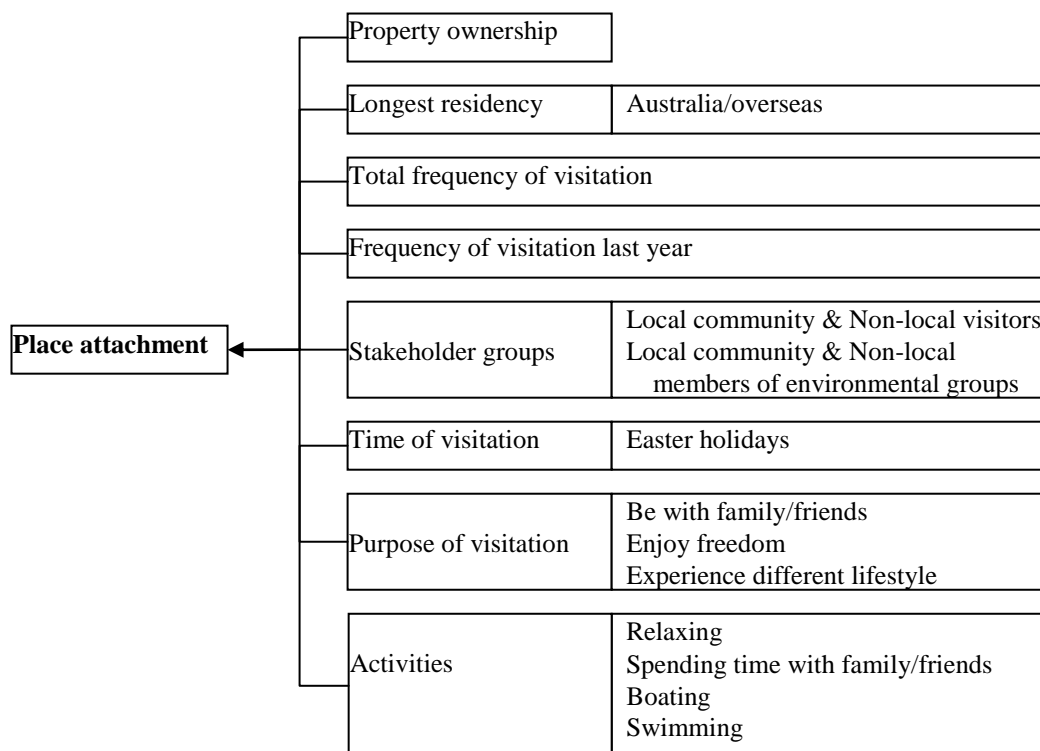


Figure 8.1 – Variables that are correlated with place attachment

The fondness or preference for the local ambience was also correlated with place attachment. Respondents who enjoyed the freedom or the experience of a different lifestyle conveyed greater place attachment. This finding corresponds with the positive feelings associated with place attachment in the literature. My results also show that family-orientated recreation behaviors were correlated with place attachment. For instance, there were higher levels of attachment among those who went to the sites in order to be with family and friends, or those who participated in family activities such as relaxing, boating and swimming. Visitors who stayed during Easter, one of the major family holiday periods, expressed higher levels of attachment than those who did not.

This finding differs from that of Williams et al. (1992), who found weekday visitors held stronger place attachment. Such a difference may reflect the different types of visitors and environments involved in the study areas. My study sites were safe for family activities, whereas Williams et al. studied wilderness areas that attract people of a certain fitness levels. The influence of family-orientated recreational behavior over place attachments is not unexpected because the locals or respondents living in the vicinity used the sites as gathering places for family and friends. In some cases, visitation to the sites had become a part of the family tradition. This also indicates that attachment to a place is in part dependent on social values, as well as the resources of that place to support social interactions.

To provide a better understanding of place attachment, variables that were significantly correlated with either emotional or functional attachment to both sites were also analysed and summarised (Figures 8.2 and 8.3). The results show that the two dimensions of place attachment exhibit correlations with different variables (Section 6.4.4). The details of those differences are elaborated as follows. Figure 8.2 shows that emotional attachment to a place is mainly associated with people's rootedness to that place, as well as their social relationships, presumably due to the accumulation of their emotional connections. For example, those whose birthplace, residence, or the place people had lived the longest were in the vicinity of the sites expressed the strongest emotional attachments. As indicated in the literature, such emotional attachment or place identity is related to their past experiences in the area. My results show that respondents whose reasons for visiting the region were to be with friends or to meet new people had stronger emotional attachment than those who did not. This is in accordance with Altman and Low (1992), who considered that social relationships play an important role in forming place attachment, and Fried (2000), who argued that the central aspects of identity formation include family history, gender roles, ethnic commitments, and social relationships within a bounded space.

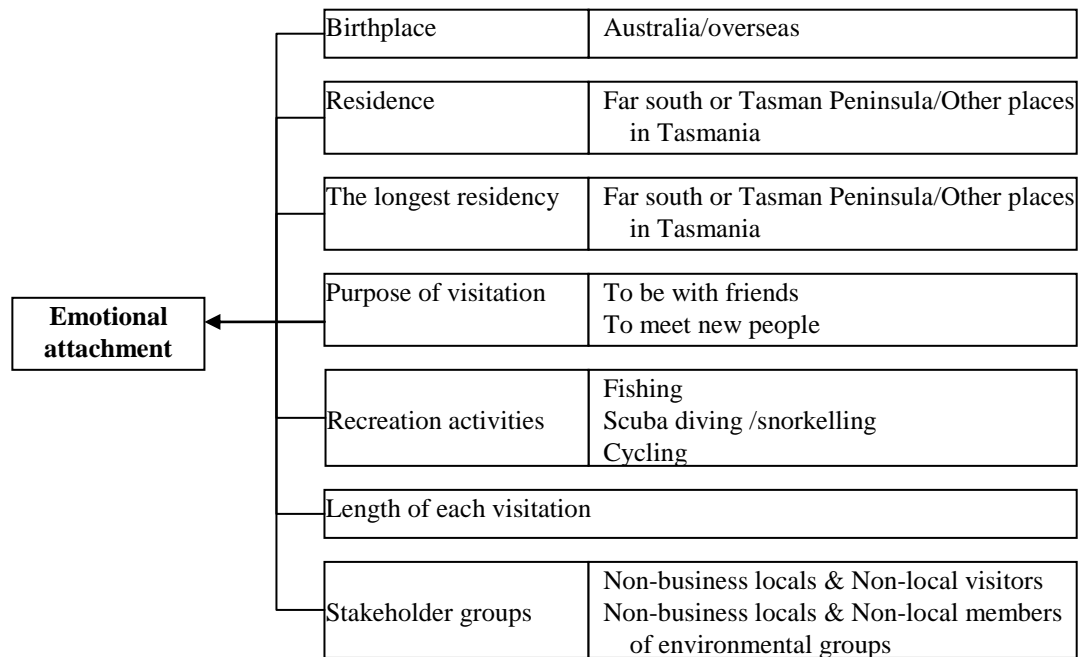


Figure 8.2 –Variables that are correlated with emotional attachment

One possible explanation is that these people focus on those social connections with others that can only occur in a particular place. They develop an identity or belongingness with the people who have similar attitudes to that place. These feelings then contribute to an emotional connection with the area. For example, those camping on the sand spit at Cockle Creek in the Bay had developed a friendship with other regular visitors. Respondents who spent longer in the place also had higher emotional attachment than those who stayed for a shorter period of time. Williams et al. (1992) similarly found that visitors who stayed more than two nights in a place showed a stronger level of attachment. It is not surprising that visitors tend to spend longer periods in places to which they are strongly attached. Recreational activities were also correlated with the degree of their emotional attachments. Visitors who went fishing, diving, or cycling held stronger emotional attachment than those who did not participate in these activities. This finding may simply reflect the activities undertaken by the rooted users or those who focus on social relationships when visiting a place.

Figure 8.3 illustrates the variables that were significantly related to the functional attachment for both study sites. My results show that functional attachments basically focused on people's activities and goals (Section 6.4.4). The level of such attachments is associated with the purpose of visitation in terms of learning about the history and nature of the place or participating in recreational activities. As activity-orientation is in

turn a function of extent of use, it is not surprising to discover that functionally attached visitors were those who had visited the region for longer periods of time. My findings also identified the critical role of recreational behaviour. Those who went canoeing, kayaking, or sailing, visited the area on school holidays, or on special family occasions, conveyed stronger functional attachment than those who did not. Those who participated in the above activities or visited at those particular times emphasised the functional value of the setting. Respondents who anticipated greater differences in the place atmosphere following tourism development also articulated a higher level of functional attachment. This suggests those functionally attached to a place are more sensitive to potential disturbance of local ambience, presumably due to their dependence on place-specific resources and associated qualities of the settings.

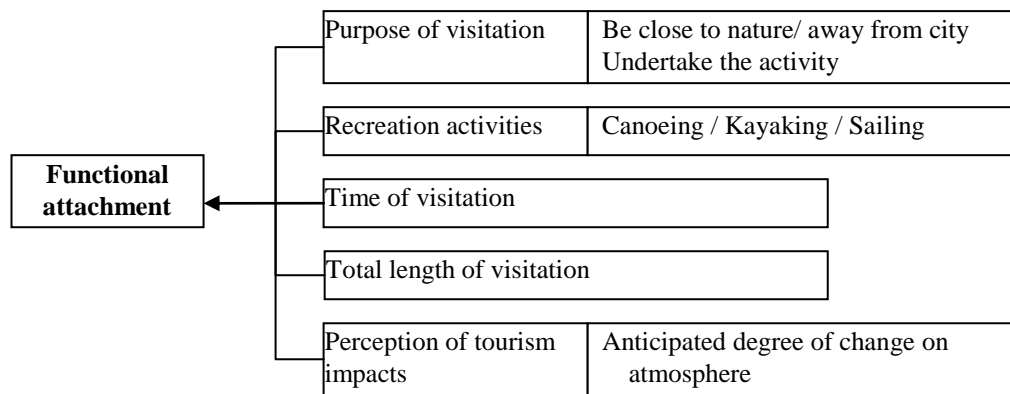


Figure 8.3 –Variables that are correlated with functional attachment

8.2 Measurement of sense of place

My findings illustrate the need to adopt a triangulation of methods to compensate for the particular limitations of each individual approach. The mixed-method approach captures a broader range of perspectives of sense of place. This is important, as sense of place is a multi-faceted and overarching concept that embraces a complex of people-place relations. By using a place attachment scale as a part of the quantitative inquiry, various social perspectives of sense of place were identified and their levels were measured. To describe an abstract idea such as sense of place in a quantitative manner can provide an understanding of the idea and reduce confusion. Sense of place expressed by a large number of respondents can be surveyed by using a limited set of questions. Answers to questions regarding place atmosphere and associated landscape characteristics with pre-arranged choice can also be expressed in the quantitative form.

The results are convenient for analysis and for identification of patterns. A place attachment scale can serve as a standardised measure useful for repeat assessments in other locations. Comparable data built up over several time periods can identify any changes that occur in sense of place for particular sites. Quantitative findings can also facilitate comparison and statistical aggregation with data from other protected areas. Such information can be comparable across regions and countries and thus enhance communication and exchange of information among different management authorities.

In addition to the scale and questions, respondents were asked to designate locations on maps they regarded as special. Places suitable for future tourism developments or those that should be protected from developments were also elicited on the maps. This method helped identify specific locations in the study sites that possessed the above mentioned place-based values. The results can provide additional knowledge of current functions of those locations from users' points of view. Such information can help determine the opportunities and impacts of existing and potential visitor experiences and could be useful for zoning and designating the ROS categories and reserves standards framework classification for different locations within a protected area.

These quantitative methods are not without disadvantages. For example, there were negative comments on the length of the questionnaires and the seemingly repetitive items in the place attachment scale. Moreover, neither the place attachment scale nor the questions about place atmosphere can simultaneously capture both physical and social dimensions of sense of place. The place attachment scale failed to reveal the physical dimension of the concept, while questions regarding place atmosphere and associated landscape characteristics were deficient in addressing the social dimension of the concept. This was owing to the fact that the origins of the scale emphasised the social dimension of sense of place, whereas those questions were designed to identify the physical dimension of the concept. The neglect of either of the dimensions can result in these important place-based values being overlooked and not adequately taken into account by authorities.

Mapping the values of specific locations within the sites also has disadvantages. Although this method can provide specific information on those locations, how people relate to the entire study sites was not captured. The place-based values that can be identified on the maps were limited by the pre-specified questions. Mapping those

values also requires considerable understanding of the area and is often associated with people's familiarity with the area. That means those who are not so familiar with the sites may not be able to effectively designate value-based locations. This could compromise the ability to have their values considered in planning and decision-making processes.

On the other hand, by not being confined to predetermined response items, the qualitative approach identified components of sense of place that were not revealed by the quantitative methods. Some place meanings only became evident through the qualitative interviews. For example, the finding that scenery where no permanent human traces can be seen, which some interviews considered to be a significant contributor to the Park's atmosphere, was only identified in interviews. Intellectual attachments to the Bay, and the presence of a particular lifestyle due to the low key ambience, were not captured by the quantitative approach. The perspective that the Bay was the extension of a personal 'backyard' or territory was also not captured by the quantitative approach. A focus on the meanings of the interview contents also increased the depth of my understanding of how people perceived the environment, as well as the cases and circumstances studied. For instance, the fact that intellectual attachment resulted from knowledge or personal interests in a place was revealed by the interviews. This suggests that sense of place is not purely determined by in situ past experience or interaction with that place. This opens a new understanding of sense of place. The information also enabled me to more fully identify the idea of sense of place and its formation, as well as assisting me in understanding and interpreting the results from the quantitative approach.

8.3 Implications for protected area governance

Sense of place has been shown to be useful for identifying and classifying key stakeholders who should be brought into the public involvement processes.

Opportunities available for stakeholders to participate and influence decision-making processes and actions can enhance good governance (Section 2.2.3). My thesis identifies the association between sense of place and levels of interests and influence over issues relating to protected area management. For example, respondents' intellectual attachments as a result of the knowledge of particular sites have been shown to equip them to commit to or make sacrifices for these sites. The association of place

knowledge and sense of place, as well as the influence of intellectual attachment to a place, associated with commitments to that place (pages 143-144), provides support for considering sense of place as another means of identifying stakeholders who should be included in engagement processes.

People with such attachments are not recognised in conventional stakeholder classifications. The fact that the current community analysis employed by the TPWS (TPWS 2007a) does not include sense of place as one of the indicators for developing the engagement priority and engagement aims means that they may be left out of decision-making processes. Despite the significance of intellectually attached people, their interests have not been highlighted, nor were active strategies taken by the TPWS to consider their interests in decision-making. The integration of sense of place into engagement processes can assist managers to adopt more inclusive input of stakeholders' knowledge and opinions into decision-making. Stakeholders identified by their senses of place could be sought before large-scale public participation commences. This could draw out additional values for proposed management actions and thus enhance the managers' comprehension of issues and lead to better protected area policies.

Engagement of stakeholders is a critical step towards more participatory governance, which can deliver more effective management and produce stronger and longer-lasting results compared to more centred governance (Section 2.2.3). Sense of place can contribute to participatory governance by providing a new dimension that should be considered when determining appropriate levels and mechanisms for public participation. For example, people who expressed stronger attachments for the study sites were more likely to observe more changes caused by the tourism development, as well as to object to the new tourism development (Section 7.3.2, 7.5.2 and 7.6.1). Managers can expect stronger responses from the public to their decisions in places that evoke strong place attachments. This indicates that place attachment is an important consideration in the design of assessment procedures that determine the appropriate level and mechanisms of community participation. Suitable forms of public participation and greater understanding of the place context can ensure that public concerns and opinions are consistently understood and considered.

Some important observations relating to protected area governance also emerged (Section 7.1 and 7.6). Similarities in opinions regarding tourism developments among

different stakeholders were evident. This indicates the prospect of consensus building among various stakeholder groups, and provides partnership opportunities for sharing power in decision-making that can facilitate connectivity and integration of governance. For instance, locals and Tasmanian Government staff both expressed more support for new tourism developments, and more concerns for the local economy, than other stakeholders. Another interesting example of common attitudes, albeit due to different motivations, was the similarity between environmental group members and local businesses in the case of Tasman National Park. For both, a key argument against the Three Capes proposal was a belief that commercial tourism accommodation should not be allowed inside national parks. For environmentalists, their concern was related to the impacts of the proposed huts on the natural character of the Park as well as opposition to commercialisation, whereas the latter were against more competition from proposed huts. Environmental group members and non-local visitors expressed a focus on walking opportunity and upgraded walking tracks associated with the Three Capes proposal, probably due to their interests in walking in the Park.

The similarities among different stakeholders also offer the potential to build partnerships across different agencies and organisations. This can enhance connectivity and integration of governance and thus contribute to good protected area governance. For instance, given multiple tenures and management agencies of the Bay, it is difficult to coordinate management activities and plans that take account of the area as a whole. The linear shape of the Park means that it has a long boundary adjacent to private properties and State Forests. This increases the difficulty in managing fuel reduction and controlled burning. Therefore, building partnerships for effective connection between, and coordination across, different agencies, as well having effective liaisons between protected area authorities and organisations responsible for the planning and management of the site, would yield considerable benefits.

A difference in opinion about proposed tourism developments between the public and the Tasmanian Government was identified (Section 7.6). This raises concerns about transparency in government, one of the principles of good governance. The different attitude to tourism development in protected areas between the public and the Tasmanian government also shows the need for a more decentralised governance of Tasmanian protected areas in terms of providing partnership opportunities for power

sharing in decision making (Section 2.2.3). My findings show objections to the proposed Three Capes development by most respondents. By contrast, Tasmanian Government staff expressed a higher level of support for the proposal. This may be the case of the staff having to 'toe the corporate line', or to reflect the pro-development position of the Government. Moreover, the Tasmanian Government decided to proceed with the development despite the fact that 209 out of the 237 submissions to the amended management plan were against the proposal. The difference in attitudes to the proposal between the public and the Government show that public opinion is not reflected by the Government. Although the current public consultation such as public meetings and submissions undertaken by the Tasmanian Government has its advantages, the influence of the public over decision-making is likely to be limited because the Government has the power to make the final decision regardless of submissions. Moreover, although a feasibility study explaining the reasoning behind the development was published by the Tasmanian Government before the public consultation, responses to individual submissions against the Three Capes development were not provided. The decisions on reclassifying the locations of the proposed huts of the Three Capes development and the proposed eco-lodge in the Bay from Wilderness or Natural Zone to Visitor Service Zone were not explained by the Government. The management objectives that set up the boundary and zoning system in the study sites could be compromised in this kind of situation. The failure of the Government to explain decisions can undermine the transparency of the decision-making process. Processes that better recognise stakeholders' senses of place for these areas were a step towards more participatory governance that would provide a means of identifying and securing more democratic decisions and outcomes.

8.4 Implications for managing protected area tourism and recreation

In addition to the theoretical discussions in Sections 8.1 and 8.2, several important implications concerning the management of the study sites can be drawn from my analysis. Exploring how people perceive a place can provide an additional dimension to understand responses to new policy proposals, as well as some insights into the context of the place in terms of important place-based values and user characteristics. Managers need to consider sense of place as a mediating variable when examining the effects of

decisions about managing recreation and tourism on local environmental quality. Such information can assist managers to better appreciate the values of an area which are an essential component in rational and ethical decision-making.

The association between sense of place and attitudes to tourism developments identified in my results can offer a new understanding of opposition to new tourism developments (Section 7.3.2, 7.5.2 and 7.6.1). For instance, negative attitudes to tourism development proposals by those attached to the study sites were evident. One possible explanation is that the attached people are long-term visitors, who have better opportunity to observe environmental impacts and their sources. This contention is endorsed by the negative attitudes towards tourism proposals by those who expected to observe significant environmental change or impacts, including permanent residents and frequent visitors. It is therefore not surprising to find that the same negative attitudes among people who anticipated the atmosphere of the Park would be changed by the Three Capes proposal. Negative attitudes to new tourism developments were also expressed by visitors whose purpose of visitation was to undertake activities. These visitors, who focus on fulfilling particular place-based needs, are more likely to be affected by new developments though, for example, 'crowding out' of their recreational activities and competition for the same places or facilities.

Observations relating to the idea of wilderness and the association of this concept with managing recreation and tourism in protected areas also emerged from my findings (pages 115 and 120). The disagreement among respondents over the 'wilderness' of the Bay illustrates confusion between wilderness and wildness character. The term wilderness is introduced in Chapter 2 as one of the values of some protected areas, and is defined as a region where human disturbance is largely absent. Clarification of the terminological confusion is critical because place quality can be used to set goals for visitor activities. Desirable environmental and social conditions for these activities can then be determined. Management actions required to achieve these conditions and acceptable levels of human disturbance can also be decided. According to the definitions, the Bay does not meet wilderness criteria because of past human activities and the presence of infrastructure. However, the site possesses significant wild characteristics, for it presents as seemingly remote and relatively untouched. The maintenance of this character requires an absence of high-quality services and

infrastructure, thus supporting management that emphasises the natural scenery and maintains the low-key status of the site (Chapter 5). In this context, the proposed high-quality eco-lodge development can be judged as inappropriate.

Uncovering sense of place enables identification of important place-based values in terms of place quality and associated landscape characteristics (Section 6.2). This has implications for managing recreation and tourism in terms of providing suggestions on appropriate locations and forms for tourism developments. For instance, locations appropriate for future tourism developments were identified by means of place value mapping (Section 6.3). Respondents identified nearby townships, private properties and some locations in Service Zones as suitable sites for future tourism developments. A substantial number of locations within the Natural or Service Zones in the reserves were also identified by respondents as special to them, with some of the locations corresponding with areas they believed should be protected from future developments. Place value mapping is currently not employed by the TPWS. This approach can provide an additional dimension of place-based values, and can be useful for TPWS when estimating the public value of protected areas. Understanding people-place relationships can also provide suggestions on appropriate forms of potential developments. For example, respondents identified the sense of equality and the seemingly pristine and unspoilt atmosphere of Recherche Bay due to its low-key facilities. This indicates that low-key tourism operations could be an appropriate form of potential development in the area. My results also reveal that the area is characterised by an ‘undeveloped’ atmosphere: there is no visible evidence of infrastructure on land from the sea. This shows that the presence or awareness of facilities could spoil place atmosphere.

Assessing sense of place can also yield insights into the users of the place. Better appreciation of such information can help managers anticipate responses to new policy and why users resist change or oppose new proposals. For example, my results reveal a higher level of emotional attachment to the Park than the Bay (Section 6.4.2), and this indicates the possibility of stronger responses to new policy/development proposals from users. Emotional attachment can also help to shape and nurture self-identity, where ethnic commitments and social relationships within a bounded space play a vital role in its formation (Section 3.1.2). Stronger emotional attachment to the Park shows its users

are more likely to form an identity associated with the place, by sharing attitudes about towards the site. Identification with a place can lead to commitment or sacrifice for the place (Section 8.1). Therefore, the Park's users are more likely to take action to protect the place. Managers could then anticipate more organised campaigns and/or public submissions in response to proposed changes affecting the Park. This is not to suggest that managers should attempt to use this understanding to manipulate and diffuse community concern. On the contrary, managers should accept the legitimacy of sense of place concerns and genuinely take them into account in their decision making processes

Understanding of users' needs is further deepened by a consideration of the relative strengths of functional attachment for the two study sites. Stronger functional attachment was evident for the Bay compared with the Park (page 129). Greater functional attachment implies the tendency of the Bay's users to be more sensitive to changes, such as new developments, that threaten to disturb their recreation activities. As functional attachment is activity and resource-centred, higher functional attachment indicates a dependence by the Bay's users on a particular set of recreation opportunities and resources. Managers can therefore expect negative responses to new proposals that may have a potential to influence their recreational activities. Respondents also conveyed that they felt the Bay to be their backyard or extension of personal territories, while a territorial connection to a place was not expressed as strongly by the Park's respondents. This suggests that proposals that have potential to bring change to the Bay can be regarded as territorial interference or intrusions, and are more likely to be subject to resistance. In addition, the sense of freedom associated with the Bay indicates its users are more likely to oppose new tourism proposals that lead to more formalised recreational settings and associated fees for the use of services and facilities. Such changes would erode the sense of freedom which is currently associated with the camping experience, particularly at Cockle Creek. In the Tasman National Park, such considerations were expressed in terms of users wishing to maintain a sense of a 'harsh environment' and the associated relatively undeveloped bushwalking opportunities. A new proposal such as the Three Capes Track would therefore undermine the functional attachment felt by current users by offering less challenging bushwalking experiences.

In both the Bay and the Park, such threats to sense of place are poorly understood, and are therefore not recognised in planning and decision-making processes. Respondents

identified the undeveloped atmosphere of the Park and the pristine atmosphere of the Bay as being of importance. Because of their situated and experiential nature, such values of protected areas are also difficult to convey to other stakeholders and the general public. This makes it difficult for the needs of people who hold such values to be recognised and taken seriously when new tourism developments are being considered. My research highlights a need to broaden and deepen the scope of community engagement in this regard.

To enhance diversity in protected areas, it is critical to keep some undisturbed areas such as national parks absent from any form of human influence. Undeveloped recreation opportunities contribute to diversity by offering a strong contrast with developed landscapes. Such environmental diversity can help fulfil the basic human need for novelty (see Section 2.1.1). The introduction of even a small-scale tourist facility in a national park may reduce its naturalness by a small degree, and therefore may be seen as having only a small impact. However, this reduction in naturalness, which also reduces the level of contrast between the park and developed areas, will reduce the apparent effect of any further developments. This is because the basis of comparison for the second development is already less natural than the base against which the first development is assessed. Such reduced contrast and naturalness can then lead to even more or advanced developments that continue the incremental change.

The ROS (Section 2.3.3) provides a means to take a range of place-based values into account, but applications of this framework by TPWS have not incorporated such considerations. Areas without signs and infrastructure offer more risky walking experiences in contrast to walking on the beach or guided overnight walks in equipped overnight huts. By protecting some less accessible locations from human disturbance associated with infrastructure, as well as more developed settings, managers can provide a variety of recreation experiences that cater to users with different values and expectations. Under a strengthening imperative to generate economic benefits from protected areas (Section 2.1), the danger is continual pressure to enhance service and facilities, which will incrementally erode the extent of relatively undeveloped recreation opportunities. The ROS is designed to safeguard against such a trend, but in Tasmania it is not being used in this way. A re-think is needed on how the ROS is deployed in this State.

8.5 Conceptual model of sense of place, tourism and management

A conceptual model hypothesising the relationships between sense of place, tourism and management was proposed in Chapter 4. The model expresses my research objectives in terms of identifying the relationships among variables including sense of place, socio-economic backgrounds and recreation behaviours, attitudes to tourism developments, and perceptions of tourism impacts. It was beyond the scope of this research to formally test the validity of the hypothesised relationships (suggestions on how this could be done are given at the end of this section). Nonetheless, data from the two study sites presented in Chapters 6 and 7 enable a preliminary examination of these relationships. These data broadly support the structure of the model proposed in Chapter 4, and reveal potentially important relationships between its components.

The link between place attachment and stakeholder cohort types shows that key stakeholders who might enhance decision-making processes can be identified by virtue of place attachment (Section 6.4.3). The association between place attachment and recreational behaviour indicates that managers need to better understand the place-based characteristics and behaviours of protected area users. Understanding the relationships between recreational behaviour, attitudes to tourism developments, and perceptions of tourism impacts can help managers be more inclusive in their treatment of relevant protected area values, and be more sensitive to users' responses to new proposals.

Figure 8.4 is a generalised representation of the findings shown in Figures 8.1 to 8.3. This figure illustrates those variables that were significantly correlated with sense of place, attitudes to tourism developments, and perceptions of tourism impacts at both sites. The reason for only including results that were significant for both case-study applications was to present a model that can provide generalised information on the relationships among the variables: correlated variables from one study site are not as useful for this purpose.

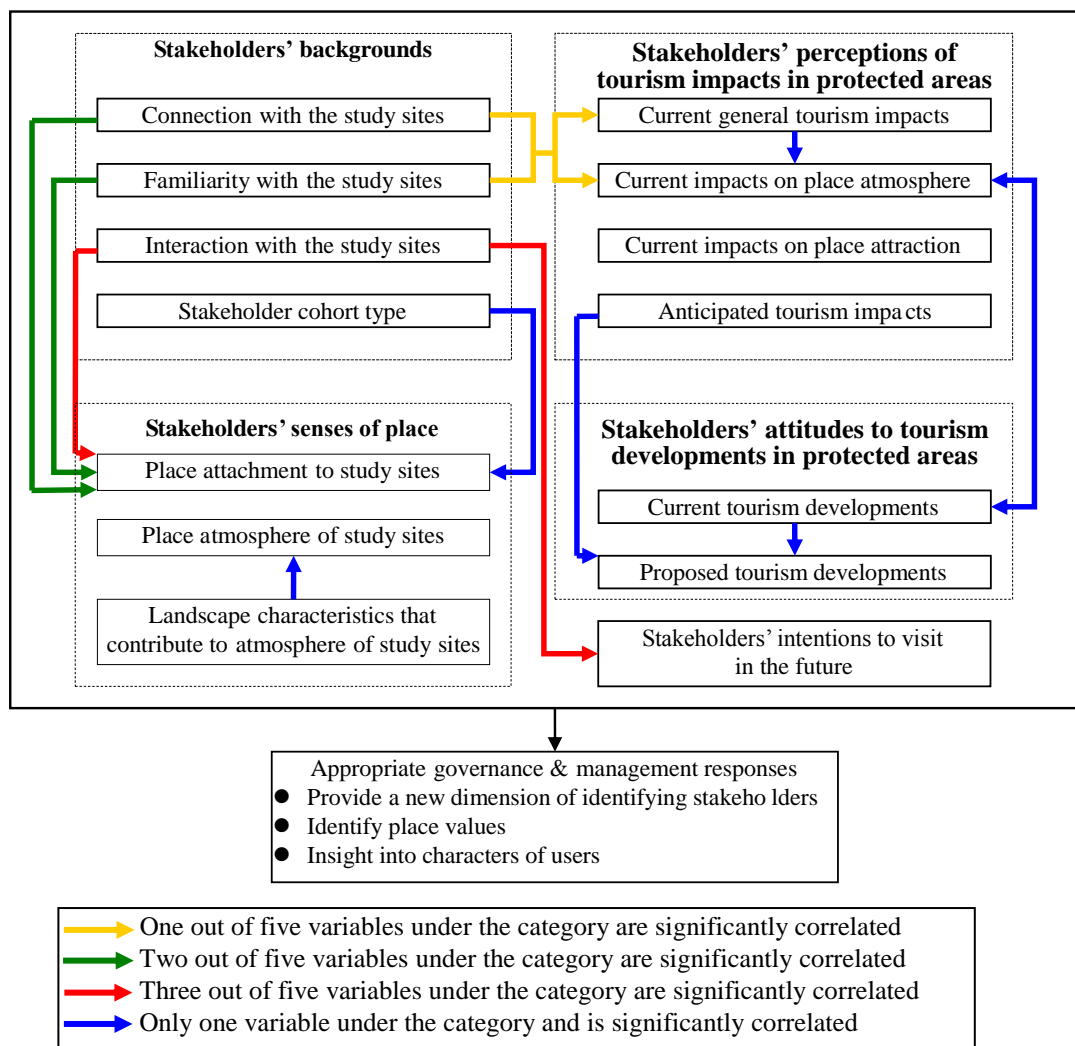


Figure 8.4 – Conceptual model showing relationships between sense of place, tourism and management in protected areas

There are differences between the model in Figure 8.4 and the one proposed in Chapter 4 (Figure 4.2). Some relationships among the variables proposed in Chapter 4 have not proven significant. For example, sense of place was not significantly correlated with attitudes to tourism developments or perceptions of tourism impacts. Intentions to visit the sites in the future showed no correlations with sense of place, attitudes to tourism developments, or perceptions of tourism impacts. Subjects' backgrounds were not correlated with attitudes to tourism developments. However, several variables concerning respondents' backgrounds were significantly correlated with sense of place (Figure 8.4). For instance, among the five sub-variables under the 'connection' category within backgrounds, I found that two variables (property ownership and longest residency in Australia or overseas) had significant relationships with levels of place

attachment. Two out of five sub-variables under the ‘familiarity’ category have an impact on the degree of place attachment. These variables were frequency of visitation both in total and for the previous year. A further example is that three out of five variables within the ‘interaction’ category were correlated with place attachment, as well as with intentions to visit in the future – these three were purpose of visitation, the activity people participated in, and time of visitation. On the other hand, Figure 8.4 also shows only one sub-variable in the ‘connection’ category (longest residency in Tasmania or mainland Australia) was significantly correlated with perceptions of change caused by tourism and alteration in place atmosphere. Another detail revealed by Figure 8.4 is that total frequency of visitation (within the ‘familiarity’ category) had an influence over perceptions of tourism impacts.

The similarities and dissimilarities between my results and former studies also suggest promising directions for future studies. For instance, the results for the Park show the influence of gender over emotional attachment (Section 6.4.4), which is in line with the findings of Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001). No connection between respondents’ gender and place attachment was revealed in my results for the Bay. This is a similar outcome to that found in the study conducted by Ng et al. (2005). Further assessment is necessary to identify whether such consistencies are due to the settings studied or related to the way in which the concepts were measured.

On the other hand, there are also inconsistencies between my findings and those of other studies. For example, my finding that age was not correlated with place attachment (Section 6.4.4) differs from the work by Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001), Moore and Graefe (1994), and Ng et al. (2005). There was no significant correlation between the respondents’ level of education and place attachment, in contrast with the study by Williams et al. (1992). My study also showed no link between income and place attachment, while Bonaiuto et al. (1999) and Williams et al. (1992) found different results. The absence of a significant relationship between visitation to a place and place attachment is at variance with the research of Gunderson and Watson (2007), who found that awareness of place can influence how people value the place. Some scholars also found visitation to a place had a positive effect on place attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Moore & Scott 2003). I also found that length of property ownership had no impact on place attachment. This differed from Brown et al. (2003) and

Kaltenborn and Williams (2002) who identified that long-term residents had higher place attachments.

Further studies are also required to confirm the structure of the generalised model (Figure 8.4) which shows links between place attachment and recreation behaviour and demographic background. Additional case applications to other protected areas are required to support or reject my findings. In addition, the model is based on results from a series of examinations to identify the individual correlations between its components. An integrated approach to test the model as a whole is desirable, in which the simultaneous interactions between the structural components are examined. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) provides such an approach. SEM is a statistical technique for testing and estimating relations through a combination of statistical data and qualitative assumptions about structural correlations (Pearl 2000). SEM treats the model under examination, and the relationships between its components, as hypotheses to be tested. SEM statistically tests how well the relationships among the concepts in the model explain the variances in a particular data set (Bollen & Long 1993; Byrne 2001). SEM can simultaneously analyse the components in a model and has the capacity to measure the direct and indirect effects of the component variables (Winter & Lockwood 2005). While it was beyond the scope of this thesis to undertake such an analysis, SEM offers a way forward in this regard.

Chapter 9 Conclusion

My thesis makes several research contributions. One of the aims of my research was to fill a gap in sense of place studies in the literature and to enhance the theoretical understanding of the concept. This was achieved by sense of place research in two natural settings and across various stakeholder groups. The lack of adequate consideration of the physical dimension of sense of place in the literature was also identified and addressed in my thesis. As expected, evidence from my case studies suggests both the social and physical dimensions of landscape are significant for their contributions to sense of place (Section 6.2, 6.4 and 6.5). An aspect not covered in the literature – the confusion over the range of terminologies relating to sense of place (Section 3.1) – was also dealt with and clarified in my thesis. I have shown sense of place to be an overarching concept that articulates a wide variety of people-place relationships (Section 6.5). This can range from atmosphere of a place, intellectual and functional attachment to a place, to feelings of belongingness to or identification with a place. Intellectual attachment can lead to the strongest form of sense of place (pages 143 and 144). However, this was not necessarily related to past contact with a place nor did users always want to remain close to the place. Intellectual attachment provides an additional perspective of the meaning of sense of place. In addition, debates over the structure of place attachment and its association with sense of place (Section 3.1.2) were also made clear. My findings confirmed a two-dimensional structure of place attachment which was also found to be one of the major components of sense of place.

Providing better measurement of sense of place in the context of protected areas was another aim of the thesis. In response to the lack of systematic and consistent measurements of sense of place identified in Section 3.2, a mixed-method approach was adopted – qualitative interviews, a quantitative scale with a set of pre-determined items, and place-based mapping. The application of this mixed-method approach (Section 4.1) was shown to be useful as the qualitative data added depth and detail while quantitative data indicate general patterns of the results.

An additional contribution of the thesis was to elucidate the utility of sense of place in the governance of protected areas in terms of facilitating public participation. Sense of place has been shown to have positive implications for identifying and classifying key

stakeholders in decision-making, and by providing a new dimension in an inclusionary process. Such identification can also provide information for determining an appropriate public participation level and mechanism. The involvement of major stakeholders in formulating government decisions can enhance governance inclusiveness (Section 2.2.3). Inclusive engagement of stakeholders, including recognition of diverse place-based values, is a critical step towards more participatory governance (Section 2.2.3). Such governance can deliver more effective management and produce stronger and longer-lasting results compared with more centred governance. Moreover, the thesis results propose an influential role for sense of place in providing insight for managers into place-based meanings. This can assist managers in understanding the roots of public comments and public responses to proposals. Some respondents felt doubtful about whether the managing authority understands the values they bestow upon a place, and did not know whether knowledge regarding their place values was used in making decisions. More attention and effort to understand place-based values can help build trust in a managing authority and thus enhance the legitimacy and effectiveness of protected area governance.

I also sought to make an empirical contribution to the mediation of issues relating to recreation and tourism. The research has identified significant place-based values in terms of place quality and associated landscape characteristics perceived by users (Section 6.2). Such important place values are essential inputs into future decision-making, and should influence the content of management objectives for recreation and tourism opportunities, as well as decisions concerning appropriate locations and forms for tourism developments. Assessing sense of place can also provide insights into the recreational behaviour of the users (Section 6.4.4). Such information can help managers understand and anticipate responses to policy proposals. These processes are fundamental to anticipating public reactions to management decisions and projecting long-term effects of recreation and tourism scenarios. Managers can respond to the needs of visitors and provide opportunities for satisfying recreation experiences by focusing resources on providing targeted services and facilities.

Zoning and ROS remain useful tools for protected area management (Section 2.3.3) and their contribution to managing recreation and tourism in protected areas can be enhanced by integrating sense of place into them. By identifying sense of place in terms

of the place atmosphere and contributing landscape characteristics, appropriate levels of human use for each zone within a protected area can be determined. For example, the assessment of sense of place (pages 118 and 124) showed the need to have some areas free from significant infrastructure, which can form the basis of a related management objective. Places identified as remote and undeveloped should be managed with minimal human disturbance. This sense of place can provide a contrast to more developed areas, and contribute to diversity in the environment and recreation opportunities, which are essential to ROS. Inappropriate activities that may compromise such diversity can be prevented and the place-based values of individual zone can be reserved. The diversity in the environment and recreation opportunities has also been shown to have mental benefits (Section 2.1.1). However, current practice of ROS by TPWS does not give sufficient regard to place-based attachments and associated values. There is a need to explicitly integrate such attachments and values into recreation and tourism planning frameworks. Further research could explore exactly how this might be achieved.

My thesis offers a conceptual model (Section 8.5) that represents a set of hypotheses regarding the structural relationships between sense of place, tourism and protected area management. Data from the two case studies examined in my research provide support for the utility of this model as a means of understanding the relationship between the component variables. This is both of theoretical value in terms of explicating people-place-management interactions, and of practical significance as a predictive and assessment tool. Further testing and refinement of the model through case applications in other protected areas is needed to confirm its structure and component variables.

Protected areas face many challenges, including ever increasing demands for natural resources and recreation and tourism use. Some protected areas may lack political support and have inadequate financial and other resources as well. Public engagement at a wider and deeper level in a collaborative manner is vital to jointly generating solutions to such issues. Effective protected area management in the context of the above challenges requires managers, local communities, and other stakeholders to have the information, attitudes, skills, capabilities and tools to plan, manage and monitor protected areas. This research has shown the potential utility of sense of place in addressing the challenges and assisting the protection of significant places from

deterioration, enhancing their values, and managing conflicting interests. In addition, by inclusion in such processes, peoples' senses of place can be better understood and taken into account. As such, my research points to a need for a more democratic approach to public engagement in protected area management – one in which sense of place considerations are both explicit and given an emphasis commensurate with their importance in people-place relationships.

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Appendix 1 Study settings of sense of place research

<i>Study settings</i>		<i>Reference</i>
Built setting	Primary homes	Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Brown et al. 2003; Brown & Perkins 1992; Csikszent & Rochberg 1981; Feldman 1990; Fuhrer et al. 1993; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Ng et al. 2005
	Property or houses	Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Jorgensen et al. 2007; Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Stedman 2003; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996
	Recreation homes	Jorgensen & Stedman 2001; Keltenborn 1997a, 1997b
	Sacred places	Eisenhauer et al. 2000
	Children's playgrounds	Chawla 1992; Min & Lee 2006
	Golf courses	Petrack et al. 2000
	Metropolitan park	Kyle et al. 2004; Moore & Scott 2003
	Public squares	Low 1992
	Neighbourhoods	Bonaiuto et al. 1999; Brown et al. 2003; Cuba & Hummon 1993; Gerson et al. 1977; Hidalgo & Hernandez 2001; Min & Lee 2006; Ng et al. 2005; Rivlin 1987
	Communities	Beckley et al. 2007; Clark & Stein 2003; Derr 2002; Eisenhauer et al. 2000; Fried 2000; Hummon 1992; Mazumdar et al. 2000; Ng et al. 2005; Pretty et al. 2003; Rogan et al. 2005; Stewart et al. 2004; Vorkinn & Riese 2001; Williams et al. 1992, 1995
Natural setting	Towns/cities	Beckley et al. 2007; Cuba & Hummon 1993; Dixon & Durrheim 2004; Hull et al. 1994; Jorgensen et al. 2007; Kaltenborn 1998; Ng et al. 2005; Pretty et al. 2003; Relph 1976
	Outdoor recreation settings	Bricker & Kerstetter 2000; Brown & Raymond 2007; Fishwick & Vining 1992; Kaltenborn 1998; Lee 2001; McCool & Martin 1994; Moore & Graefe 1994; Vaske & Kobrin 2001; Vorkinn & Riese 2001; Vorkinn 1998; Warzecha & Lime 2001; Williams et al. 1992; Williams & Vaske 2003
	Forests	Hufford 1992; Gunderson & Watson 2007; Williams & Vaske 2003
	Wilderness or national parks	Beckley et al. 2007; Kaltenborn 1997; Kaltenborn 1997; Kaltenborn 1998; Kaltenborn & Vaske 2003; Kaltenborn & Williams 2002; Moore & Scott 2003; Warzench & Lime 2001; Williams et al. 1992; Williams et al. 1995

Appendix 2 Interview schedule for Recherche Bay

1. What do you usually call Recherche Bay? (Research Objective 1-1)
2. How long have you been coming here? What do you normally do when you are here? (Research Objective 1-3)
3. What does this place mean to you? (Research Objective 1-1)
4. What attracts you to come here? (Research Objective 1-1; 1-3)
5. Are there some physical characteristics of this place, its landscape, that are particularly important to you? (Research Objective 1-2)
6. Are there some other social characteristics of this place that are particularly important to you? (Research Objective 1-2)
7. Do you have any special memory of this place? Are there any physical or social characteristics that are linked to this memory? (Research Objective 1-2)
8. So, would you say that you feel especially attached to this place? Do you feel like you belong here? (Research Objective 1-1)
9. If this is not the first time you have come here, have you noticed any changes over the years? Recently? Can you tell me a bit about these changes? (Research Objective 2-2)
10. Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about Recherche Bay?

Note 1: a parallel set of interview questions was developed for Tasman National Park.

Note 2: Related research objectives from page 4/5 are also indicated.

Appendix 3 Information sheet for Recherche Bay interviews

Recherche Bay – what does it mean to you?

Dear interviewee,

You are invited to participate in a research project being conducted by the University of Tasmania. This would involve both a 30 minutes interview and your completion of the attached questionnaire. If you prefer, we can omit either the interview or questionnaire.

The aim of the project is to explore why some people might care about places such as Recherche Bay. Please refer to the other side of this page for a list of interview questions. Your participation will assist me to develop a framework for how such places could be managed in the future.

To protect your anonymity, the results will only be reported in a manner which ensures that you will not be identified. All information gathered during the course of this research including your responses will be securely stored for a period of 5 years in the School of Geography & Environmental Studies, University of Tasmania and can only be accessed by me.

I sincerely appreciate if you could participate in my survey. If you have any queries regarding this project, please contact me.

Yours sincerely,

Chia-Chin (Amy) Lin

PhD Candidate
School of Geography & Environmental Studies
University of Tasmania
Tel: +61 3 6226 7611
Mobile: 0431 746 585
E-mail: lincc@utas.edu.au

Note: a parallel information sheet was generated for Tasman National Park.

Appendix 4 Questionnaire for Tasman National Park

Note: a parallel questionnaire was generated for Recherche Bay.



Tasman National Park –What does it mean to you?



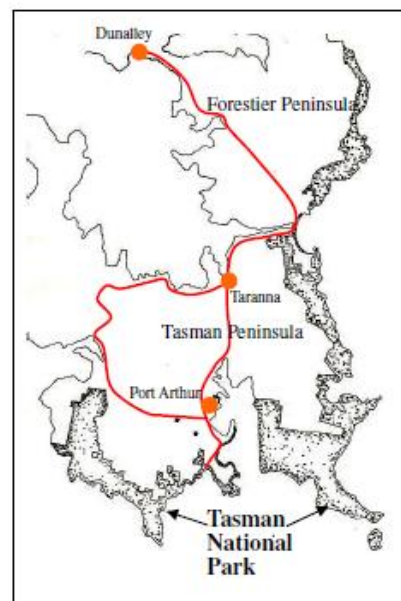
University of Tasmania
School of Geography & Environmental Studies
2008

Tasman National Park – What does it mean to you?

This survey explores why some people might care about places like Tasman National Park. I would like to ask you questions about what this area means to you, why you might find it an attractive place, and whether you feel this area has changed over the last few years.

Tasman National Park is located on the south-eastern corner of Tasmania, approximately 100 km south-east of Hobart. This survey concerns the whole area of Tasman National Park, plus Eaglehawk Neck Historic Site, Pirates Bay State Reserve and Safety Cove State Reserve (see the colour map enclosed with the survey). Throughout this survey, the “shorthand” Tasman National Park will be used to refer to all these reserves.

Tasman National Park is a popular place for bushwalking, camping, boating, abseiling, rock climbing, hang gliding and other outdoor activities. It is also an important tourism destination. I am seeking your views about what this place means to you. Your participation will assist me to develop a framework for how Tasman National Park could be managed in the future.



Section 1 The Importance of Tasman National Park to You
--

1. Had you heard of Tasman National Park before you received this questionnaire?
[Please tick one box]
☐ Yes
☐ No---Skip to Question 26 (p. 7)
2. Have you visited Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box]
☐ Yes
☐ No---Skip to Question 26 (p. 7)
3. For the following statements, please circle one of the numbers 1 to 6, that best corresponds with what you think. Please answer all the questions. Your responses are important.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Not sure
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼
For the recreation activities that I enjoy most, Tasman National Park is the best place.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am very attached to Tasman National Park.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Many of my friends / family prefer Tasman National Park over other sites.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I identify strongly with Tasman National Park.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel Tasman National Park is a part of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
For what I like to do, I could not imagine anything better than Tasman National Park.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I enjoy visiting Tasman National Park more than other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Tasman National Park means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
My friends /family would be disappointed if I were to start visiting other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel a strong sense of belonging to Tasman National Park.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Visiting Tasman National Park says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have little, if any, emotional attachment to Tasman National Park.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I prefer Tasman National Park over other places for the recreational activities that I enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If I were to stop visiting Tasman National Park, I would lose contact with a number of friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 2
Your Special Places in Tasman National Park

4. Please take the enclosed colour map and use the green dots marked **P1** through **P6** and stick these dots on the map to show up to 6 “Special Places”. Please write the reasons why these places are special to you in the corresponding space below.

Green Dots P1 P2 P3 P4 P5 P6 → Put on the enclosed colour map

*Please do not use the red dots marked **N1** through **N6** or the white dots marked **T1** through **T6** just yet. Please wait until Questions 34 and 35!

Special Place **P1** _____

Special Place **P2** _____

Special Place **P3** _____

Special Place **P4** _____

Special Place **P5** _____

Special Place **P6** _____

5. Please circle any part of the photos to show if the features are special to you.

For example, if you think the whole scene is special to you, please circle the whole photo.

If you think the lake is special to you, please circle the lake. Please circle as many features as you like.



Section 3
Your Experience of Tasman National Park

6. Which one word best describes the atmosphere of Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Spectacular
☐ Stunning
☐ Historical
☐ Wild
☐ Pristine
☐ Peaceful
☐ Natural
☐ Friendly
☐ Remote
☐ Solitary
☐ Developed
☐ Other - please specify: _____
7. Which of the following features contribute to the atmosphere you selected in Question 6? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Sea-cliffs
☐ Coastline
☐ Ocean scenery
☐ Ocean sounds
☐ Ocean smells
☐ Beaches
☐ Sand dunes
☐ Button grass plains
☐ Hills
☐ Forest scenery
☐ Forest smells
☐ Camp fires
☐ Campsites
☐ Walking tracks
☐ Historic sites
☐ Lookouts
☐ Car parks
☐ Jetties
☐ Boats
☐ Picnic tables & toilets
☐ Information signs
☐ Other - please specify: _____
8. Over the time you have visited Tasman National Park, have you noticed any change? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Changed a lot
☐ Changed a little
☐ Stayed about the same
☐ Not sure
9. Have these changes influenced the atmosphere of Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Influenced a lot
☐ Influenced a little
☐ Stayed about the same
☐ Not sure
10. What changes have you noticed? [Please tick ▲ if the item has increased, tick — if the item has stayed the same, tick ▼ if the item has decreased]
- | ▲ | — | ▼ | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of visitors |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of local residents |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of boats |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Development on nearby private land |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of campsites & toilets |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Noise in camping area |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Littering |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Vandalism |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of information signs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of road signs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of roads |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Number of car parks |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Traffic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of coastal scenery |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality of native vegetation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Forestry activities |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other - please specify: _____ |
11. Have these changes made Tasman National Park a less desirable place to visit, more desirable place to visit or about the same? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Less desirable place
☐ Stayed about the same
☐ More desirable place
☐ Not sure
12. What do you plan to do in the future? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ I will visit more frequently
☐ I will visit the same amount
☐ I will visit less frequently
☐ I do not plan to return
☐ Not sure

13. The items listed below may or may not affect your visitor experience in Tasman National Park. For each item, please circle one of the numbers 1 to 6, to indicate whether the item has affected your experience in the past.

The item <u>has</u> affected my experience <u>in the past</u>	Very Negative ▼	Negative ▼	No Effect ▼	Positive ▼	Very Positive ▼	Not sure ▼
Number of visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Number of local residents	1	2	3	4	5	6
Development on nearby private land	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of campsites & toilets	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of shower block in Fortescue Bay	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of water supply in Fortescue Bay	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of barbeques	1	2	3	4	5	6
Provision of rubbish removal	1	2	3	4	5	6
Noise in camping area	1	2	3	4	5	6
Littering	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vandalism	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of information signs	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of road signs	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of roads	1	2	3	4	5	6
Traffic	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of coastal scenery	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quality of native vegetation	1	2	3	4	5	6
Forestry activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cost of visiting	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other - please specify:	1	2	3	4	5	6

14. The changes listed below are assumed to happen in Tasman National Park in the future. For each change, please circle one of the numbers 1 to 6, to indicate how it would affect your future experience.

I <u>expect</u> the change would affect my <u>future</u> experience	Very Negative ▼	Negative ▼	No Effect ▼	Positive ▼	Very Positive ▼	Not sure ▼
Increased number of visitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Increased number of local residents	1	2	3	4	5	6
More development on nearby private land	1	2	3	4	5	6
More campsites & toilets	1	2	3	4	5	6
More shower blocks in Fortescue Bay	1	2	3	4	5	6
Better water supply in Fortescue Bay	1	2	3	4	5	6
More barbeques	1	2	3	4	5	6
Better provision of rubbish removal	1	2	3	4	5	6
More noise in camping area	1	2	3	4	5	6
More littering	1	2	3	4	5	6
More vandalism	1	2	3	4	5	6
Better information signs	1	2	3	4	5	6
Better road signs	1	2	3	4	5	6
Better roads	1	2	3	4	5	6
Increased traffic	1	2	3	4	5	6
Degradation of coastal scenery	1	2	3	4	5	6
Degradation of native vegetation	1	2	3	4	5	6
Continuing forestry activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other - please specify:	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 4
Your Activities in Tasman National Park

15. What activities do you usually undertake during your visit? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Sightseeing
 - ☐ Fishing
 - ☐ Boating
 - ☐ Sailing
 - ☐ Sea kayaking / Canoeing
 - ☐ Surfing
 - ☐ Scuba diving / Snorkelling
 - ☐ Swimming
 - ☐ Abseiling / Rock climbing
 - ☐ Hang gliding
 - ☐ Bushwalking- Day or short walks
 - ☐ Bushwalking- Overnight walks
 - ☐ Camping
 - ☐ Picnicking
 - ☐ Relaxing
 - ☐ Spending time with family/friends
 - ☐ Cycling
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
16. Why do you go to Tasman National Park? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ To be with family
 - ☐ To be with friends
 - ☐ To be close to nature/ away from city
 - ☐ To enjoy the scenery
 - ☐ To do the activities listed in Question 15
 - ☐ To enjoy the freedom
 - ☐ To experience different lifestyle
 - ☐ To meet new people
 - ☐ To learn about the history/ nature
 - ☐ To work (tourism related)
 - ☐ To work (not tourism related)
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
17. How many times have you been to Tasman National Park?
_____ time(s)
18. How many years have you been visiting Tasman National Park?
_____ year(s)
19. How many people usually visit with you?
_____ other people
20. How often did you visit Tasman National Park during the past 12 months? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Not at all
 - ☐ Once
 - ☐ A few times
 - ☐ About once a month
 - ☐ Two to three times a month
 - ☐ About once a week
 - ☐ More than once a week
21. When do you usually visit Tasman National Park? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Week days
 - ☐ Weekends
 - ☐ Public holidays
 - ☐ Easter holidays
 - ☐ Summer holidays
 - ☐ School holidays
 - ☐ Special family occasions
22. How long do you usually stay in Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ 1 day or less
 - ☐ 2-7 days
 - ☐ 8-14 days
 - ☐ 15-21 days
 - ☐ 22-30 days
 - ☐ More than 30 days
23. Do you or your family have a property on the Tasman Peninsula? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No---Skip to Question 26 (next page)
24. What kind of property do you have? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Holiday shack
 - ☐ House
 - ☐ Vacant block
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
25. How long have you owned the property?
_____ year(s)

Section 5

Your Attitude to Tourism Development in and near to Tasman National Park

26. How would you describe the current level of tourism development in Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ Not enough (more tourism development should be encouraged)
 - ☐ About right (the present level of tourism development is appropriate)
 - ☐ Too much (the present level of tourism development concerns me)
 - ☐ Not sure
27. What kind of new tourism development, if any, do you think is appropriate on private land near to Tasman National Park? [Please tick one box. You can indicate the location in Question 35]
- ☐ Major hotel
 - ☐ Small hotel/motel
 - ☐ Nature-based lodge
 - ☐ Serviced apartment
 - ☐ Bed and breakfast accommodation
 - ☐ Caravan park
 - ☐ Campground with designated sites
 - ☐ Dispersed camping (with no or very limited facilities)
 - ☐ No development (Go to Question 29)
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
28. Why do you think this kind of new tourism development is appropriate on private land near to Tasman National Park? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ More opportunities to stay in high quality accommodation near Tasman National Park are desirable
 - ☐ Local economy could be improved
 - ☐ More development is good
 - ☐ More visitors are desirable
 - ☐ Tourism should be promoted
 - ☐ Camping has less impact than other development
 - ☐ Developments outside Tasman National Park have less environmental impacts than developments within the park
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
29. What kind of facilities/services, if any, do you think are needed in Tasman National Park? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Upgraded walking tracks
 - ☐ New walker huts
 - ☐ More campsites
 - ☐ More toilets
 - ☐ More barbecues
 - ☐ More rubbish facilities
 - ☐ Better information signs
 - ☐ Better road signs
 - ☐ Better roads
 - ☐ Introduction of fee and booking system for multi-day walk
 - ☐ More tourist boats
 - ☐ No more visitor facilities
 - ☐ Less or no visitor facilities
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____
30. The Three Capes Track, a multi-day walk with fee and booking system, has been proposed in Tasman National Park (see colour map). Five well-equipped huts accommodating up to 60 people each will be built run by private operators. Are you for or against this development? [Please tick one box]
- ☐ For
 - ☐ Against-Skip to Question 32 (next page)
31. Why are you for the *Three Capes Track*? [Please tick those boxes that apply and then go to Question 33 (next page)]
- ☐ Improved tracks
 - ☐ Improved local economy
 - ☐ More walking opportunity is good
 - ☐ More development is good
 - ☐ More visitors are desirable
 - ☐ Tourism should be promoted
 - ☐ Other - please specify: _____

32. Why are you against the *Three Capes Track*? [Please tick those boxes that apply]
- ☐ Impacts on scenery
 - ☐ Impacts on plants and animals
 - ☐ Impacts on visitor experience
 - ☐ Impacts on the atmosphere
 - ☐ More visitors
 - ☐ More noise
 - ☐ More traffic
 - ☐ Little benefit to local economy
 - ☐ The huts should be run by the Parks and Wildlife Service, not private operators
 - ☐ There should be no commercial tourism accommodation in national parks
 - ☐ Other - please specify:

33. Do you think the *Three Capes Track* proposal would change the atmosphere of Tasman National Park?
[Please tick one box]
- ☐ Yes, the atmosphere would change a lot
 - ☐ Yes, the atmosphere would change a little bit
 - ☐ No, the atmosphere would stay about the same
 - ☐ Not sure
34. Please find the set of red dots marked N1 to N6 on the enclosed colour map. Please stick these dots within Tasman National Park on the map at places you think future development should be prohibited if these places could be targeted for future development.
(*N=No development*)
35. Please find the set of white dots marked T1 to T6 on the enclosed colour map. Please stick these dots within Tasman National Park on the map at places you think are suitable for future tourism development. If you think no development should occur, do not use any of the T dots. But if you think tourism development is desirable at places outside Tasman National Park, please stick the dots at these places.
(*T=Tourism development*)

Section 6
Information about Yourself

36. What is your gender?
☐ Female
☐ Male
37. How old are you? _____ years old
38. Where were you *born*? [Please tick one box and specify the Postcode / Country & the length of time you have lived there]
☐ Australia Postcode _____
 Time lived there _____ years
☐ Overseas Country _____
 Time lived there _____ years
39. Where do you live *now*? [Please tick one box and specify the Postcode / Country & the length of time you have lived there]
☐ Australia Postcode _____
 Time lived there _____ years
☐ Overseas Country _____
 Time lived there _____ years
40. Where have you lived the *longest*?
 [Please tick one box and specify the Postcode / Country & the length of time you have lived there]
☐ Australia Postcode _____
 Time lived there _____ years
☐ Overseas Country _____
 Time lived there _____ years
41. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 [Please tick one box]
☐ Primary school
☐ Secondary school
☐ University
☐ TAFE / Technical college
☐ Prefer not to answer
☐ Other - please specify: _____
42. Which employment category best describes you? [Please tick one box]
☐ Student
☐ Recreation Services
☐ Accommodation & Food Services
☐ Tourism
☐ Agriculture
☐ Fishing
☐ Forestry
☐ Mining
☐ Manufacturing
☐ Electricity, Gas, Water & Waste Services
☐ Construction
☐ Wholesale / Retail Trade
☐ Transport, Postal & Storage
☐ Communication Services
☐ Financial & Insurance
☐ Property & Business Services
☐ Professional & Technical Services
☐ Administrative & Support Services
☐ Government
☐ Education
☐ Health & Community Services
☐ Artist / Craftsperson / Arts Services
☐ Designer / Architect
☐ Retired
☐ Prefer not to answer
☐ Other - please specify: _____

Thank you very much for your time and thoughts!

Your effort in completing this survey is very valuable to us.
Please mail the booklet in the stamped envelope provided as soon as possible.

If you have any other comments about the survey that might be important, please feel free to write your views and opinions on the back cover.

Appendix 5 Cover letter for Recherche Bay surveys

Dear Recherche Bay Visitor,

You are invited to participate in my research project being conducted through the University of Tasmania because I thought you might have an interest in how Recherche Bay is managed in the future. The aim of my project is to explore why some people might care about places such as Recherche Bay. I would like to ask you questions about what the area means to you, why you might find it an attractive place, and how you feel the area has changed over the last few years.

Your reply is significant and important to assist me to develop a framework for how such places could be managed in the future. Participation in this project is voluntary. The survey should take about 20-30 minutes for you to complete. The survey has an identification number only for classifying what type of interest you have in this area (such as visitor or resident). Your responses will be securely stored for a period of 5 years at the University of Tasmania and can only be accessed by me and my supervisors. After five years the data will be destroyed. Please be advised, you must be over 18 years old in order to participate in this project.

This research project has been approved by the University of Tasmania Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about the manner in which the project is conducted, please contact the Executive Officer (phone: 03-6226-7479, e-mail: Human.Ethics@utas.edu.au).

I sincerely appreciate your participation.

With thanks,

PhD Candidate
School of Geography & Environmental Studies
University of Tasmania
Tel: +61 3 6226 7611
Mobile: 0431 746 585
E-mail: lincc@utas.edu.au

Note: a parallel information sheet was generated for Tasman National Park.

Appendix 6 Variables correlating with place attachment to Recherche Bay

Socio-economic backgrounds

The results revealed no significant difference in scores on both *emotional* and *functional attachments* for people with diverse socio-economic backgrounds, except respondents' *level of education* ($p=.000$; $p=.002$). Post-hoc comparisons illustrated the difference between people who have had:

Emotional attachment

- 12-year ($M=.52$, $SD=1.12$) and 15-year education ($M=-.32$, $SD=.83$).

Functional attachment

- 12-year ($M=.33$, $SD=1.01$) and 15-year education ($M=-.01$, $SD=1.00$).

Connection with the Bay

No significant correlations were found for factors including *land ownership*, *residence (overseas or Australia and Tasmania or mainland Australia)* and *length of property ownership*. In contrast, for the variable *property and house ownership*, a significant difference was detected in scores on both *attachments* between those who 'had property' ($p=.000$; $p=.000$) or 'had a house' ($p=.011$; $p=.007$) in the Far South and people who did not. Considering the *birthplace*, there was significant disparity in scores on both *attachments* for people who were born in:

- Australia and overseas ($p=.000$; $p=.013$);
- Tasmania and mainland Australia ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- Far South and Tasmania outside Far South ($p=.000$; $p=.014$).

Considering *place that had lived the longest*, a statistical distinction was perceived in scores on both *attachments* for respondents who had lived the longest in:

- Australia and overseas ($p=.000$; $p=.001$);
- Tasmania and mainland Australia ($p=.018$; $p=.005$);
- Far South and Tasmania outside Far South ($p=.000$; $p=.024$).

Familiarity with the Bay

Both *attachments* were not significantly correlated with either *awareness of or visitation to the Bay*. On the other hand, *total frequency of visitation* was detected by one-way ANOVAs as a determinant of the *emotional* and *functional attachments* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$). Post-hoc comparisons illustrated the divergence between people who had visited:

Emotional attachment

- once ($M=-.61$, $SD=.73$) and two to nineteen times ($M=-.22$, $SD=.84$), twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=.27$, $SD=.88$) or 'over ninety-nine times' ($M=.97$, $SD=1.02$);

- two to nineteen times and either twenty to ninety-nine times or over ninety-nine times;
- twenty to ninety-nine times and over ninety-nine times.

Functional attachment

- once ($M=-.72$, $SD=.90$) and two to nineteen times ($M=-.11$, $SD=.87$), twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=.25$, $SD=.73$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=.88$, $SD=.83$);
- over ninety-nine times and either two to nineteen times or twenty to ninety-nine times;
- two to nineteen times and twenty to ninety-nine times.

There was a statistically significant difference in scores on both *attachments* for those who had varied *total length of visitation* ($p=.004$; $p=.000$). The dissimilarity was discovered between people who had visited the Bay for:

Emotional attachment

- ten years and less than ten years ($M=-.27$, $SD=.88$) and either more than ten years and less than twenty-five years ($M=.14$, $SD=.99$) or over twenty-five years ($M=.24$, $SD=1.14$);
- more than ten years and less than twenty-five years and over twenty-five years.

Functional attachment

- ten years and less than ten years ($M=-.48$, $SD=.98$) and either more than ten years and less than twenty-five years ($M=.23$, $SD=.79$) or over twenty-five years ($M=.44$, $SD=.98$);
- more than ten years and less than twenty-five years and over twenty-five years.

Total frequency of visitation in the past one year can influence scores on both *attachments* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$) with a significant differentiation between those who had visited the Bay for:

Emotional attachment

- none ($M=-.48$, $SD=.88$) and either a few times ($M=.31$, $SD=.87$) or more than a few times ($M=1.27$, $SD=.86$);
- once ($M=-.40$, $SD=.82$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Functional attachment

- none ($M=-.33$, $SD=.95$) and either a few times ($M=.28$, $SD=.77$) or more than a few times ($M=1.07$, $SD=.83$);
- once ($M=-.37$, $SD=.94$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times' and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Interaction with the Bay

Some variables had no impacts on both *attachments*. Those variables were *activity* (*day bushwalking, sightseeing and motor sports*), *purpose of visitation* (*learn history and work*) and *time of visitation* (*week days*). Conversely, *activities* were proved as a variable in both *attachments*. The significant difference was found in scores between those who undertook:

- relaxing and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- camping and people who did not ($p=.000$ $p=.002$);

- spending time with family/friends and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- fishing and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- boating and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- scuba diving and people who did not ($p=.004$; $p=.043$);
- swimming and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- overnight bushwalking and people who did not ($p=.001$; $p=.020$);
- walking for exercise and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$).

There was also a statistical distinction in scores on the *emotional* and *functional attachments* between respondents whose *purpose of visitation* was to:

- be with family and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- be with friends and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- be close to nature and those who did not ($p=.002$; $p=.000$);
- undertake activities and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- enjoy freedom and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- experience different lifestyle and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- meet new people and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.002$).

Time of visitation was another variable, with a significant divergence between those who visited on:

- public holidays and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.003$);
- Easter holidays and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- summer holidays and people who did not ($p=.001$; $p=.022$);
- school holidays and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- special family occasions and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$).

Number of companion was discovered as a variable in both *attachments* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$). There was a significant dissimilarity between people who visited with:

Emotional attachment

- one companion ($M=-.53$, $SD=.70$) and more than four people ($M=.70$, $SD=.95$);
- two to four people ($M=-.13$, $SD=.94$) and more than four people;
- alone ($M=.02$, $SD=1.17$) and one companion, two to four people or more than four people;
- one companion and two to four people.

Functional attachment

- more than four people ($M=.52$, $SD=.81$) and either one companion ($M=-.40$, $SD=.90$) or two to four people ($M=-.07$, $SD=.99$);
- alone ($M=.06$, $SD=1.26$) and one companion, two to four people or more than four people;
- one companion and two to four people.

A statistical variance was detected in scores on both *attachments* for those who had various *length of each visitation* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$). The difference was identified between respondents who spent:

Emotional attachment

- one day or less ($M=-.53$, $SD=.72$) and either two to seven days ($M=.15$, $SD=1.01$) or more than one week ($M=1.09$, $SD=.91$);
- two to seven days and more than one week.

Functional attachment

- one day or less ($M=-.44$, $SD=.90$) and either two to seven days ($M=.13$, $SD=.99$) or more than one week ($M=.80$, $SD=.71$);

- two to seven days and more than one week.

Perceptions of tourism impacts as correlating variables

The results of t-tests and one-way ANOVAs indicated some variables of *perceptions of tourism impacts* had no significant difference in scores on both *attachments*. Those variables were *degree of change*, *degree of influence on atmosphere* and *degree of influence on attraction of the Bay*.

Correlating variables only for the emotional attachment for Recherche Bay

For the variable *residence*, there was a significant disparity in scores on the *emotional attachment* for people who lived in 'Far South' and those who resided in 'Tasmania outside Far South' ($p=.002$). Considering *activities*, a statistical difference in scores on the *emotional attachment* was perceived between respondents who went 'cycling' and those who did not ($p=.008$).

Correlating variables only for the functional attachment for Recherche Bay

Property ownership was found as a variable in scores on the *functional attachment* while a significant divergence was revealed between people who had 'a shack' and people who did not ($p=.007$). *Activities* was another determinant, with a significant disparity between those who went 'kayaking' and people who did not ($p=.000$). *Purpose of visitation* can also influence the *attachment*. A significant distinction was perceived between people who went to 'enjoy scenery' and those who did not ($p=.040$). For the variable *time of visitation*, there was significant difference in scores on the *attachment* for people who visited on 'weekends' and people who did not ($p=.026$). Considering *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere* as another determinant, a statistical variation was identified ($p=.008$) between those who anticipated the atmosphere would:

- change a little ($M=-.38$, $SD=.95$) and change a lot ($M=.10$, $SD=.96$);
- stay the same ($M=-.50$, $SD=1.29$) and either change a little or change a lot.

Appendix 7 Variables correlating with place attachment to Tasman National Park

Socio-economic backgrounds

Variables including *age* and *gender* had no impacts on scores on both dimensions of *place attachment*. On the other hand, there was significant difference in those scores for people whose *employment type* was ‘tourism industry’ and people who was not ($p=.007$; $p=.000$). Post-hoc comparisons illustrated the difference between people who have had:

Emotional attachment

- 12-year ($M=.33$, $SD=1.11$) and 15-year education ($M=-.18$, $SD=.90$);
- 12-year and 13-year education ($M=.29$, $SD=1.07$).

Functional attachment

- 13-year ($M=.25$, $SD=.92$) and 15-year education ($M=-.12$, $SD=1.01$).

Connection with the Park

Some variables which had no impacts on scores on both dimensions of *place attachment* were *house ownership*, *shack ownership*, *length of property ownership* and *birthplace* (*Tasmania/mainland Australia* and *Tasman Peninsula/Tasmania outside the Peninsula*). Nevertheless, *property ownership* was a variable in scores on the *emotional* and *functional attachment*. A significant difference was detected between people who owned:

- a property on Tasman Peninsula and those who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- respondents who had a block of land and people who did not ($p=.020$; $p=.000$).

For the variable *residence*, t-test also proved a significant disparity in scores on both attachments between those who lived in:

- Australia and those living overseas ($p=.016$; $p=.002$);
- Tasman Peninsula and Tasmania outside the Peninsula ($p=.000$; $p=.000$).

There was a statistical distinction in scores on both dimensions of *place attachment* between respondents whose *place that had lived the longest* was in:

- Australia and overseas ($p=.024$; $p=.009$);
- Tasman Peninsula and Tasmania outside the Peninsula ($p=.011$; $p=.013$).

Familiarity with the Park

Awareness of TNP and *visitation to TNP* had no impacts on scores on both dimensions of *place attachment*. On the other hand, a significant divergence was perceived in scores on the *emotional and functional attachment* for those had diverse *total frequency of visitation* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$). Post-hoc comparisons pointed out the disparity between people who had visited for:

Emotional attachment

- over ninety-nine times ($M=.38$, $SD=1.06$) and once ($M=-.54$, $SD=.64$), two to nineteen times ($M=-.30$, $SD=.82$) or twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=-.10$, $SD=.96$);
- once and either two to nineteen times or twenty to ninety-nine times;
- two to nineteen times and twenty to ninety-nine times.

Functional attachment

- once ($M=-.98$, $SD=.78$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times ($M=.05$, $SD=.90$) or over ninety-nine times ($M=.47$, $SD=.95$);
- two to nineteen times ($M=-.51$, $SD=.85$) and either twenty to ninety-nine times or over ninety-nine times;
- twenty to ninety-nine times and over ninety-nine times;
- once and two to nineteen times.

There was also a statistically significant variation in scores on both dimensions of *place attachment* for those who had various *total frequency of visitation in the past one year* ($p=.000$; $p=.000$). The dissimilarity was revealed between respondents who had visited the Park for:

Emotional attachment

- more than a few times ($M=.59$, $SD=1.02$) and none ($M=-.60$, $SD=.60$), once ($M=-.45$, $SD=.75$) or a few times ($M=-.07$, $SD=.96$);
- once and a few times;
- none and either once or a few times.

Functional attachment

- none ($M=-.88$, $SD=.77$) either a few times ($M=.05$, $SD=.95$) or more than a few times ($M=.53$, $SD=.86$);
- once ($M=-.51$, $SD=.90$) and either a few times or more than a few times;
- a few times and more than a few times;
- none and once.

Interaction with the Park

Some variables had no impacts on scores on both dimensions of *place attachment*.

These variables were: *number of companion*, *activity (sailing, surfing, rock climbing, hang gliding, camping, sightseeing and cycling)*, *purpose of visitation (learn history and work)*, *number of companion* and *time of visitation (weekend, public holidays and summer holidays)*. However, for the variable *activities*, a significant difference in scores on the *emotional and functional attachments* was detected between people who went:

- fishing and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.012$);
- boating and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.001$);
- kayaking and people who did not ($p=.012$; $p=.001$);
- scuba diving and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.003$);
- swimming and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- relaxing and people who did not ($p=.003$; $p=.003$).
- spending time with family/friends and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$)

There was a significant differentiation in scores on both *attachments* between people whose *purpose of visitation* was to:

- be with family and people who did not ($p=.001$; $p=.010$);

- enjoy freedom and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.000$);
- experience different lifestyle and people who did not ($p=.003$; $p=.010$).

Time of visitation was discovered as a variable in scores on both senses of place, with a significant divergence between respondents who visited on:

- week days and people who did not ($p=.022$; $p=.000$);
- Easter holidays and people who did not ($p=.000$; $p=.006$).

Perceptions of tourism impacts as correlating variables

The results of t-tests and one-way ANOVAs indicated some variables of *perceptions of tourism impacts in Tasman National Park* had no impacts on scores on both attachments. These were *degree of change* and *degree of influence on attraction of the Park*.

Correlating variables only for the emotional attachment to the Park

Gender can influence scores on the *emotional attachment*, with a statistical distinction between female and male people ($p=.034$). *Birthplace* was another determinant of the attachment while there was a significant difference between people born in Australia and overseas ($p=.019$). For the variable *purpose of visitation*, a significant variation in scores on the attachment was found between people who went to the Park to:

- be with friends and people who did not ($p=.032$);
- meet new people and people who did not ($p=.017$).

There was a statistically significant disparity in scores on the attachment ($p=.005$) between those whose *length of each visitation* was:

- more than one week ($M=.88$, $SD=1.00$) and either one day or less ($M=.00$, $SD=1.02$) or two to seven days ($M=-.12$, $SD=.93$);
- one day or less and two to seven days.

Correlating variables only for the functional attachment for Tasman National Park

Residence was detected as a determinant of the *functional attachment*, with a significant disparity between people who lived in Tasmania and mainland Australia ($p=.002$). For the variable *place that respondents had lived the longest*, there was a significant distinction in scores on the attachment for respondents who had lived the longest in Tasmania and mainland Australia ($p=.015$). Determinant such as *total length of visitation* can determine the scores on the attachment ($p=.000$) while there was a significant variation between those who had visited for:

- over twenty-five years ($M=.29$, $SD=.96$) and either ten years and less than ten years ($M=-.26$, $SD=.98$) or more than ten years and less than twenty-five years ($M=-.11$, $SD=.98$);

- ten years and less than ten years and more than ten years and less than twenty-five years.

Activities had impacts on the *functional attachment*, with a significant difference between people who went:

- day bushwalking and people who did not ($p=.006$);
- overnight bushwalking and people who did not ($p=.029$);
- picnicking and people who did not ($p=.018$).

Purpose of visitation was perceived as a determinant of the *functional attachment*.

There was a statistic distinction between those who went to:

- be close to nature and people who did not ($p=.001$);
- enjoy scenery and people who did not ($p=.035$);
- undertake activities and people who did not ($p=.001$).

There was a significant difference in scores on the *functional attachment* between respondents whose *time of visitation* was on:

- school holidays and people who did not ($p=.005$);
- special family occasions and people who did not ($p=.001$).

For the variable *perceptions of degree of influence on atmosphere*, there was a statistically significant differentiation in scores on the *attachment* ($p=.002$) between those who thought the atmosphere had:

- stayed the same ($M=-.18$, $SD=1.03$) and either been influenced a little ($M=.26$, $SD=.93$) or influenced a lot ($M=.25$, $SD=.96$);
- been influenced a little and a lot.

How people *anticipated degree of influence on atmosphere* can influence the *attachment* ($p=.007$). There was a significant divergence between people who anticipated the atmosphere would be:

- change a lot ($M=.20$, $SD=.96$) and either stay the same ($M=-.23$, $SD=.97$) or change a little ($M=-.10$, $SD=1.02$);
- stay the same and change a little.